

OUTLINES OF GENERAL HISTORY

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ADAPTED FOR USE IN EGYPT
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WITH MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS

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GENERAL HISTORY

INTRODUCTION

THE RELATION OF HISTORY TO OTHER BRANCHES OF LEARNING

What History is.—History is an ordered account of the growth of human societies. It treats principally of political events, and must tell also about many other things which have influenced the progress of nations. Religion, science, art, literature, education, and commerce are important in the history of every country. *History is created by man.*

The Limits of History.—History does not go far back into the early development of mankind. Man has existed on the earth for about a hundred thousand years.¹ Our most ancient historical information reaches back to a time about six thousand years ago. In other words, history is able to treat of only about the last seventeenth of the whole story of man. Within this last historical period are also many gaps, which can never be filled. As regards both ancient

¹ This is the period estimated by Haeckel. Like all other estimates, it does not claim to be exact.

GENERAL HISTORY

and mediæval history, what we do not know is much more than what we do know.

The Sources of History.—Historians get their knowledge from written documents, from inscriptions, and from various sources of information left by departed people in their buildings and graves. For modern history, there is an enormous mass of state papers, treaties, reports, newspapers, and books, and the historian's main difficulty lies in selecting the important parts from the bewildering wealth of his material. Documents may be written on different kinds of paper, on stone, wood, or metal. Inscriptions may be found on rocks, on the walls of tombs, or on coins. No history of any country can be written unless its people have left some such record of their activities. Again, if the records of a later period are scanty, or unreliable, then the history of that period must also be imperfect.

Prehistoric Times.—The times, of which no definite records have been left, are called the prehistoric times. It should always be borne in mind, that they are incomparably longer than the recent period called the historic one. The study of mankind before the historic period is called prehistoric archaeology. Prehistoric men left utensils, weapons, bones of killed animals, and other remains in the caves where they used to dwell. There these things, and sometimes also the bones of their former owners, remained under the soil, until the modern archaeologists dug them up again. Large tribes of those ancient savages built their villages over the water of lakes. The traces of such settlements have been discovered and carefully

searched. So much is now known that the books on prehistoric archaeology form quite a little library.

Races of Mankind.—The commonest division of mankind is according to the colour of the skin. Thus three great types are distinguished: The Black Race, the Yellow or Mongolian (often called Turanian) Race, and the White or European Race. But this division, like many others, cannot be strictly applied, and it is easy to find people, for example, whose skin is not yellow, although they are accounted Mongolians. The study of human races is called *Ethnology*. The most difficult problem of ethnology is just this of distinguishing the different races of man, and determining their points of difference. Broadly speaking, the three above-mentioned types have existed since the earliest historic times, and each has retained its peculiarities unchanged to the present day.

The Black Race.—Most of the members of this race, called negroes, have Africa for their original home. They have largely been used as slaves by the stronger and cleverer members of the higher races. Ancient Egyptian monuments show captive black slaves. In the United States eight million negroes are now living as free citizens, all of them former slaves or descendants of slaves once imported like cattle from Africa.

The Yellow Race.—The Yellow Race is spread over Eastern, Northern, and Inner Asia. Its most important branch are the *Chinese*, the first people of the world in point of numbers, and through their continuous national history. Universal respect and admiration is extended in modern times to the *Japanese*. They have shown a remarkable ability for learning the advantages

of Western civilization, which has quickly lifted them to the first place in the East. Until recently they had shared with other Mongolian peoples a strong conservatism, which even amounted to hostility against innovation. The lack of progress among both Chinese and Japanese during several centuries was due to their geographical isolation from the West. The same reason accounts for the many contrasts in the manners and customs between Eastern and Western nations. From the beginning of history until modern times the two civilizations have developed quite independently of each other.

A third branch of the Yellow Race, feared for its nomadic and warlike habits, are the *Mongols* of Inner Asia. Their cruel conquests have extended from China to the borders of Germany. They were only destroyers, and founded no permanent states of their own. Their present condition of wandering herdsmen is about the same as it was two thousand years ago. Other important Mongolian peoples are the *Koreans*, *Manchus*, *Tibetans*, *Annamites*, and *Burmese*. The *Lapps*, *Finns*, and *Basques* in Europe represent the remnants of an ancient Turanian population, which was replaced by members of the White Race. The *Magyars* (Hungarians) and the *Turks* are Mongolian peoples, who conquered their present homes from the European inhabitants.

The White Race.—The White Race embraces all those nations whose history is the story of Western civilization. Their exact origin is unknown. In historic times they have lived in Europe and around the Mediterranean. From there they have conquered

the continents of America and Australia, and extended their dominion over all parts of the world.

According to differences of language, the White Race has been divided into three groups, called the *Hamitic*, the *Semitic*, and the *Aryan*. The Hamitic group contains the ancient Egyptians as its most famous members.

The *Semites* occupied principally the south-western part of Asia. The *Babylonians* and *Assyrians* ruled over large empires from the Gulf of Persia to the Mediterranean. The *Arabs* had the oases and arid pastures of Arabia for their home. There they led wild and free lives, protected from stronger neighbours by the barren deserts, until the teaching of Mohammed led them over half the world in a career of conquest. The *Jews* or Hebrews were a small people who influenced the world by their religious teaching. Christ was a Jew, and the Christian beliefs rest chiefly on the great religious classic of the Hebrews, the Bible. The *Phoenicians* were the great trading nation of antiquity. Excepting the Arabs, all the Semitic peoples had ended their national history two thousand years ago.

The *Aryans* adopted most of the civilization developed by the Semites, and made it a part of all that learning, culture, and power, which is called modern Western civilization. First on this great path of progress were the *Greeks*. They attained in course of a few centuries a stage of culture, which in some respects has not been equalled again since their decline. The *Romans*, by their wonderful conquests, spread orderly government and the arts of

peace around the whole Mediterranean, over Western Europe, and into Britain. After a period of disorder and intellectual decline, the *Germanic* races became the leaders in the renewed progress, which is now transforming the ancient civilizations of Asia.

The principal members of the Germanic race are the *Germans*, the *Scandinavians* (Danes, Swedes, Norwegians), and the *English*.* The people who now speak languages descended from the Roman (Latin) tongue, are commonly called the *Romance* or Latin nations. Among these *Italy*, *France*, and *Spain* stand first. Two more branches of the Aryan stock are distinguished in Europe: the *Celts* and the *Slavs*. The first embrace of modern peoples only the *Scotch*, the *Irish*, and the *Welsh* in England, and the *Bretons* in northern France. The leading Slavic people are the *Russians* and the *Poles*.

The Relation of History to Geography.—Human beings, like all living things, are strongly influenced by the places where they live. A farmer working on his fields gets an appearance and character different from a sailor or from a nomadic herdsman. In the same way whole nations are affected by the soil and the climate of the countries inhabited by them. So great is this influence that branches of the same parent race have become quite different from each other after having wandered to different countries. It is profitable always to bear this in mind during the study of geography, and to try to understand just how geographical conditions have helped to determine the history of various countries. It follows, on the other hand, that the student of history must first have a fair knowledge of physical geography.

Chronology.—The science of measuring time and of fixing historical dates is called chronology. (In

Greek, *chronos*=time). The divisions of time into years, months, and days are determined by the relative motions of the stars, sun, moon, and earth. With astronomical chronology as a basis, different peoples have practised different methods of fixing the time of historical events. Several national and religious chronologies will be mentioned further on. The modern chronology of the European nations is evidently destined to become the prevailing one throughout the world, as it everywhere accompanies the advance of Western ideas. It is practical, and is the only one in which scholars have reduced the important dates of all nations to one common system.

Modern Western chronology is based on the Julian calendar, which was arranged by the order of Julius Caesar in 45 B.C., and which was reformed in 1582 A.D. by Pope Gregory, whence it is now called the *Gregorian Calendar*. The time since the birth of Jesus Christ is called the Christian Era, and all dates are referred to the year 1, viz. the birth-year of Christ. Dates before Christ are indicated by the abbreviation B.C., meaning 'before Christ,' or by A.C., which stands for the Latin 'ante Christum' (=before Christ). Dates after Christ are marked A.D., which is an abbreviation of the Latin 'Anno Domini,' meaning 'in the year of the Lord' (Jesus Christ).

MEDITERRANEAN SEA



PART I. ANCIENT HISTORY.

5500 B.C. TO 375 A.D.

CHAPTER I

EGYPT

The Beginning of History.—The history of Egypt is more ancient than that of any other country, that is to say, the first records of the Egyptians are the oldest in existence. That there were other civilized people contemporary with the earliest Egyptians is known from the fact that the latter carried on extensive foreign trade; but from the remotest historic times the monuments of the Nile Valley, thanks to their own solidity and the dryness of the desert air, alone remain to record the dawn of civilization.

The kings of the Ancient Egyptians have been divided into thirty dynasties, or families. Before these dynasties there were kings who did not rule over the whole country. Upper and Lower Egypt were separate kingdoms. We have no history of the pre-dynastic age, but it is probable that a fairly civilized people inhabited the Nile Valley as far back as 8000 B.C. History begins with the coming of a

conquering race, which, under its king, Mena, the founder of the First Dynasty, united the earlier kingdoms. As to the date of this important event opinions differ: Professor Petrie places it at about 5500 B.C., though other historians think that it was considerably later. The same uncertainty exists about all dates earlier than the Eighteenth Dynasty. Those given here are Petrie's.

The Early Empire.—The first six dynasties are known as the Early Empire. Mena completed the union of Upper and Lower Egypt by building Memphis, the situation of which, just above the apex of the Delta, gave him command of the whole country. For the greater part of the Early Empire this city was the capital of Egypt. There is naturally no detailed history of this remote epoch, but we have abundant evidence of the rapid progress in art, science, and commerce made by the Egyptians of the first four dynasties. In the art of sculpture especially they excelled, for none of the conventional work of later times can compare with the wonderfully modern and life-like statues of the Fourth and Fifth Dynasty sculptors.

The most famous monuments of the Early Empire are, of course, the Pyramids. The oldest remaining building of this kind is the Step Pyramid at Saqqarah, which was built by *Zoser*, a king of the Third Dynasty, but the first real pyramid is the one at Meidum and was built by *Snefru*, the last king of this dynasty. The increased wealth of the country enabled the kings of the Fourth Dynasty to erect for their tombs the most colossal and enduring monuments of all time—the

pyramids of Gizah. The greatest of these was built by Khufu over six thousand years ago. It has been stated that 100,000 workmen were employed for twenty years in constructing this gigantic sepulchre, and considering that it contains nearly two and a half million blocks weighing on the average two and a half tons each, this is not surprising, more especially as the accuracy of the finish of the masonry is, as Petrie says, "equal to optician's work of the present day, but on a scale of acres instead of feet and yards of material." The existence of such a building shows not only the amazing skill of these early engineers, but also the absolute power of the monarch who could command such vast resources merely to perpetuate his own glory. The second pyramid of Gizah, which was built by Khufu's successor, Khafra, is nearly as large, but of considerably inferior workmanship.

During the Fifth and Sixth Dynasties the power of the kings declined, and with it the culture and prosperity of their subjects. The great nobles who governed provinces became practically independent, and by the Seventh Dynasty (4000 B.C.) the central authority of Memphis had passed away. Of this and the next three dynasties there is but the scantiest knowledge. Egypt seems to have relapsed into a disorganized state similar to that of the predynastic age.

The Middle Empire.—With the rise of the Eleventh Dynasty and the restoration of order begins the second great period of Egyptian history. With Thebes as their capital the kings of this dynasty spread their rule over the whole country, and as the result of sound government civilization again advanced. About

3400 B.C. Amenemhat I. usurped the throne and founded the Twelfth Dynasty. Under his successors the Egyptians probably enjoyed greater peace and prosperity than at any other time in their history. By elaborate systems of irrigation agriculture was developed to the utmost. Industrial arts reached a



THE GREAT PYRAMID, AND SPHINX

far higher level than under the Early Empire. Some of the ornaments, now in the Cairo Museum, which were worn by princesses of the Twelfth Dynasty are of the most exquisite workmanship, and even in our own times have rarely been surpassed. The Middle Empire was the classic age of Egyptian literature. Even 2000 years later the works of this period were regarded as the models of correct style. Spelling was systematized, and poetry and fiction probably originate from this time.

The two most famous kings of the Middle Empire were Usertsen III. (the Sesosties of the Greeks), who conquered Nubia, and his son Amenemhat III., who reclaimed a large part of the Fayum, and by storing water in Lake Moeris kept the Delta irrigated in the dry season.

The Hyqsos.—After the Twelfth Dynasty a rapid decline again set in, and this time the result was even more disastrous. An Asiatic race, known as the Hyqsos, conquered Lower Egypt, and although Egyptian kings continued to reign at Thebes, the whole country had to pay tribute to its new masters. Making apparently no attempt to occupy Upper Egypt, the Hyqsos built a new capital, Avaris, on the eastern edge of the Delta. Their choice of such a site points to the probability that Egypt was only part of a Hyqsos Empire which included Syria, and possibly other Asiatic dominions. Oppressive though their rule was, they were an ultimate benefit to the Egyptians, for by introducing the horse into Egypt and by teaching their subjects greater proficiency in the art of war, they enabled them to attain unprecedented glory in the ensuing epoch.

The New Empire; The Eighteenth Dynasty.—The Hyqsos remained in Egypt for about five centuries. They were finally driven out by Aahmes I., a Theban prince, who conquered Avaris and became the ruler of a once more united kingdom. Under the Eighteenth Dynasty, of which he was the founder, Egypt became a military empire. Hitherto the Egyptians had been essentially a peaceful race, but their long struggle with the Hyqsos and its successful ending seems to have

given them the ambition for foreign conquest. This ambition was soon realized. The great King Tothmes III. (1480-1447 B.C.) by a series of successful campaigns in Asia established his country as the greatest power in the world. His dominions extended from the Euphrates to the fourth cataract of the Nile, and his fleet was supreme in the Levant. Vast wealth poured into the country, the simple living of former times was superseded by imperial splendour and luxury, and Thebes was adorned with temples and palaces of surpassing magnificence. The architecture and sculpture of this period are colossal in grandeur and dimension, but lack the beauty, both in design and execution, which is so conspicuous in earlier Egyptian art.

The fall of the Eighteenth Dynasty was brought about by the dissensions that followed the reign of Amenhotep IV. This remarkable man abandoned the ancient religion of Egypt and introduced in its stead a form of sun-worship. The new creed, however, never became popular, and after the death of its founder the people rose against his successor, with the result that the first king of the Nineteenth Dynasty came to the throne and the former religion was restored. With the fall of the Eighteenth Dynasty came the dissolution of the great empire of Tothmes, partly owing to the neglect of Amenhotep for state affairs, and partly to the power of the Hittites in Northern Syria.

The Nineteenth Dynasty.—A great effort was made by the kings of the next dynasty to regain the Asiatic dominions of their predecessors. Seti I., who is famous as the builder of the great hall at Karnak, was success-

ful in Southern Syria, but failed to crush the Hittites in the north. His son Rameses II. is the most widely known of all Egyptian kings. He reigned for 67 years (1292-1225 B.C.), and is famous as a warrior, a builder, and patron of arts and sciences. According to the accounts of his own historians he gained great victories over the Hittites, but the fact that the latter made an honourable treaty with him and that he married their king's daughter does not help to establish this assertion. His conceit must have been boundless. Not only were vast buildings and statues erected all over the country in his honour, but the names of former kings were obliterated from their monuments and that of Rameses carved in their place, in order that future generations might attribute to him almost every work of art in the country. His wars exhausted the military strength of Egypt, and his building enterprises drained her resources of wealth and of labour. The final decline of the nation dates from his time.

The Decline.—At the close of the Nineteenth Dynasty, Egypt once again relapsed into a state of anarchy, from which she was rescued by Rameses III. In his time the Libyans from the west and an alliance of the Mediterranean peoples threatened to overrun the Delta, but Rameses defeated both these enemies and restored the commercial prosperity of the country. His wars were not to extend his dominions, but to preserve them, for the days of Egypt's military greatness were gone. After his reign the decline was rapid. Priests, slaves, and soldiers of fortune disorganized the Empire. By nature an unwarlike

race, the Egyptians became a prey to their neighbours, and were ruled successively by Libyans, Nubians and Assyrians. Just before the end, however, of their national history, there was an echo of their bygone greatness. Psammetichus I. (663-609 B.C.) threw off the Assyrian yoke. He and his successors, the Twenty-sixth Dynasty, encouraged the patriotic spirit of their subjects by endeavouring to re-create the classic style in literature and art. Their capital was Sais in the Delta, where by this time Greek influence was beginning to be strongly felt. Greek mercenaries filled the army and Greek politicians played a large part in directing the affairs of the country. Thus the power of the Twenty-sixth Dynasty was more apparent than real. The revival was short-lived. In 525 B.C. Cambyses, King of Persia, defeated the Egyptians at Pelusium, and by conquering the whole country closed the history of five thousand years.

Religion, Customs, and Arts.—The Egyptians were very religious. Religion ruled the life of the nation, from the Pharaoh to the beggar. One-third of the land was sacred as property of the temples. The houses were built of mud, while the temples were reared with stone.

The temple of *Karnak* in upper Egypt, near the ancient Thebes, is considered to have been the finest and largest religious structure built in antiquity. Many of its huge columns still overawe modern visitors of the ruins.

Every district in Egypt had its local gods, but some of them were worshipped all over the country. Chief among these were *Ra*, the sun god, and *Osiris*, who represented the benefits of the Nile. *Together with

Osiris, his wife *Isis*, and their son *Horus* were commonly adored. The Egyptians, like many other peoples, felt the need of giving to their gods, who represented powers of nature or abstract qualities (like the sun, the moon, fertility, health), some visible shape. So they made statues of them, mostly looking like people with the heads of animals. Often they believed that gods actually lived in real animals. Hence arose the curious custom of *Animal Worship*. Cats, dogs, and crocodiles were considered to be holy. The soul of Osiris was said to reside in a bull, called *Apis*. The *Apis* was worshipped in his own fine temple. On his death the soul of Osiris went into a bull calf just then born. (Compare the belief of Lamaism: When a Living Buddha dies, the soul of Buddha enters a child born at that moment. The Dalai Lama of Lassa is considered as the highest Living Buddha.)

Transmigration of Souls, Resurrection, Embalming, and Tombs.—All Egyptians firmly believed that their souls would be punished or rewarded, after the decease of the body, for the bad or good deeds done on earth. Good souls became the friends of Osiris. Bad souls had to wander through the bodies of animals. The greater the crime the lower were the animals through which the soul had to pass. After many thousand years of this punishment the soul might again become human.

After an immensely long time all souls would return to their human bodies. This is called the doctrine of the *Resurrection*, and is found in many later religions

(viz. Christianity and Mohammedanism). In order that the soul might find its old body on the day of resurrection, the Egyptians preserved the bodies with medicines. The process is called embalming, and embalmed corpses are called *Mummies*. Many thousands of mummies have been found. Those of Seti I. and Rameses II. can now be seen in the museum at Cairo. The faces are well preserved, in spite of the more than three thousand years which have passed since the decease of these monarchs.

The departed souls—so the Egyptians believed—might sometimes come back to the graves where the bodies rested. To please the souls, great labour was spent in building tombs. The rocky hills west of the Nile, especially near the ancient Thebes, contain numberless tombs tunnelled deeply into the ground. The walls are generally covered with pictures and inscriptions, describing the life of the deceased. Through these pictures modern scholars have learned all about the manners and customs of the ancient Egyptians. The Pyramids also were the tombs of their builders.

Glass, Paper.—Five thousand years ago the Egyptians knew all the secrets of glass-making. They excelled in the manufacture of imitation gems, an art which has not been equalled again until recently in Europe. The chief Egyptian writing material was made from a kind of grass which grew near the edge of the Nile. The Greeks had two names for this: first *papyrus* (hence English 'paper'), and secondly *byblos* (hence English Bible = book). Papyrus was expensive; therefore many cheaper writing materials, such as wooden tablets, leather, or pieces of broken pottery, were also used.

Egyptian Writing.—Egyptian writing, like the Chinese, began as picture-writing. The names of things were expressed by simple drawings of them. The Egyptians also resembled the Chinese in taking great pride in their writing, which was indeed quite beautiful. For inscriptions they continued the use of the old picture-writing, called *Hieroglyphics* (*hiero* = sacred, *glyphic* = carved writing). In documents and for business abbreviated forms gradually replaced the hieroglyphical, because they could be written much faster.

Art and Science.—The Egyptians were very fond of painting and sculpture. In the dry climate of the country many works of art have been preserved to the present day; especially paintings in tombs are often as fresh as if they had been recently finished by the artists. The conservatism of the Egyptians is best illustrated by their art: it had already reached perfection under the Pyramid Kings, and made almost no progress during the following two thousand years. The scientific attainments of the Egyptians are commonly over-estimated. Their strongly religious habits and their superstitions prevented the rise of that spirit of inquiry which has given birth to modern science. They preferred to keep some useless practice, because it had been handed down from their ancestors, rather than to try to find out some better way. Hence medicine, arithmetic, astronomy, and other branches of learning stayed at the same low level since time out of memory. To dissect a human body was a dreadful crime. So Egyptian doctors never acquired a correct knowledge of anatomy. They could treat diseases only according to traditional instructions, and if their treatment was not successful, magic rites were employed. In astronomy they distinguished planets from fixed stars, divided the heavens into constellations, and determined approximately the length of the year. But their

CHAPTER II

BABYLONIA AND ASSYRIA

The Tigris and Euphrates Valley.—Flanked by the Syrian and Arabian deserts on the one hand, and by the Armenian high lands and the Zagros mountains on the other, lies a vast river valley which bears many resemblances to Egypt. The climate is similar, except that the eastern valley has an annual rainy season. The soil is alluvial, and is also flooded and enriched by the regular overflows of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. Here also artificial irrigation had to prepare the way for agriculture. With canals and ditches properly controlled, the country was of unrivalled fertility. Without them it has sunk mostly into sandy waste and feverish swamps.

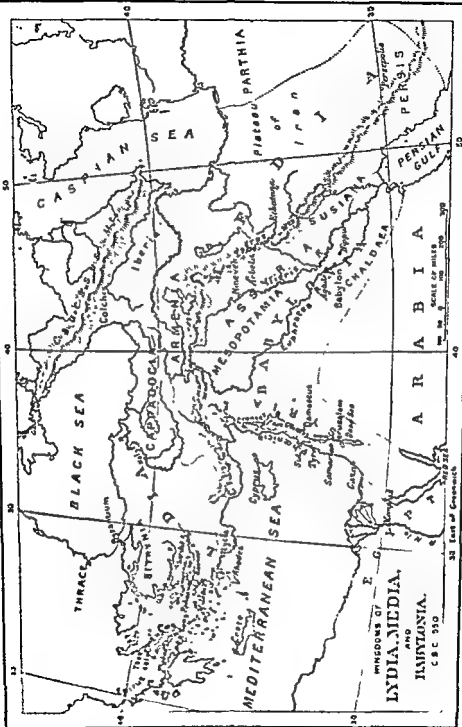
In ancient times the lower part of this valley was called *Babylonia*, from the great city of Babylon. The name *Chaldaeia* is often given to the same region, because the people of the first Babylonian empire are distinguished as Chaldaeans. The region lying above Babylon and between the rivers, mostly dry steppe, was called *Mesopotamia** (*Meso*=middle, *potam*=river), which term is generally applied also to the

whole river valley. The upper country, stretching from the Tigris over the hills and into the mountains, was known as *Assyria*.

The Three Great Monarchies.—Three great monarchies arose in this country. They were not, however, quite distinct, but had, in many ways, a continuous history. The rulers were first in the south, during the long period called the First Babylonian or Chaldean empire. Then the Assyrians in the north-west became the ruling people, until Babylon again asserted its supremacy.

The Old Babylonian Empire (about 4000-1300 B.C.).—The origin of Babylonian history is unknown. Uncertain information reaches back to about 4000 B.C. At that remote time Chaldaea was divided into a number of independent city states. *Sargon I.*, king of the city Agade, first united the whole country under his rule, and extended his dominions to the Mediterranean. *Hammurabi*, king of all Babylonia about 2200 B.C., is famous on account of his laws. An almost complete code of these, inscribed on a large stone monument, has been found by modern excavators. The code of Hammurabi is the oldest document of its kind known, and is of extraordinary value for the study of early institutions.

A few centuries later Babylonian emigrants settled in the hill-country known as Assyria. For a long time they remained subject to the southern government. But gradually the Assyrians grew more independent, until finally they in turn became masters of the Mesopotamian peoples.



The Assyrian Empire (1300 to 606).—The Assyrians were cruel and warlike. Their supremacy was based entirely on military strength. Their kings were fighters, and spent most of their reigns in subduing or harassing the countries from Media to Egypt, and from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean. The Assyrian capital was the splendid and strong *Nineveh* on the Tigris. Like various other nations whose main pursuit was war, the Assyrians had little original culture. In religion they had their own god, Ashur, but otherwise their beliefs were about the same as those of the Babylonians. Their literature, art, and general knowledge were all borrowed from Chaldaean models.

Sargon was the first of the Assyrian kings to make war on the Pharaoh. The Egyptian king was forced to pay tribute, as were also the Arabians, and even the people of Cyprus, one of the large islands in the Eastern Mediterranean. When the Jews revolted against *Sargon's* authority, he destroyed half of their country, and carried most of the people away as captives, assigning them new homes in Assyria.

Under *Ashur-bani-pal* Assyria reached the height of her power. The province of Egypt regained its independence under Psammetichus I., the founder of the twenty-sixth dynasty. But this local reverse of the Assyrian arms was more than made good in other regions. Practically all of Western Asia, from the plateau of Iran to the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, acknowledged *Ashur-bani-pal* as its overlord.

The Sudden Downfall of Assyria.—The cruel oppression of the Assyrian kings made their yoke doubly hateful to their numerous subjects. Revolts constantly broke out in all parts of the empire, and it only needed a brief reverse of fortune to bring the might of Assyria to ruin. Not long after Ashurbanipal's reign the governor of Babylon made an alliance with Cyaxares, the king of the Medes, with the object of overthrowing the Assyrian supremacy. *Saracus*, the last king of Assyria, was unable to withstand his united enemies. In 606 Nineveh was taken by storm after a long siege. *Saracus* set fire to his palace, and burned himself and his family, rather than fall into the hands of the conquerors. With Nineveh the whole empire fell to pieces, and the very memory of it was soon lost from the minds of the people. For over two thousand years even the sites of Nineveh and other splendid cities were forgotten, and next to nothing was known about their history.

The New Babylonian Empire (606-538).—Although the New Babylonian empire lasted for less than a century, it left a deep impression on neighbouring nations through its power and wealth. The fame of later Babylon was established mainly by the energy of one king, *Nebuchadnezzar*. During a remarkable reign of nearly sixty years, this monarch again united a great part of Western Asia under one rule. An Egyptian army led by the Pharaoh Necho was utterly defeated near



NEBUCHADNEZZAR.

the Euphrates river, Syria was occupied, and the Jewish king was forced to acknowledge the Babylonian suzerainty. The successor of Necho persuaded the Jews and the Phoenicians to join him in a renewed struggle against Babylonia. Jerusalem and Tyre, the capitals of the allies, suffered cruelly during the ensuing war. The Jewish king was killed, and most of his subjects were transplanted to Babylonia to prevent further revolts. Having also conquered the Phoenician cities, Nebuchadnezzar contented himself with humbling the pride of Egypt, which was now too weak to menace the peace of the Babylonian empire again. Though forced to march on many campaigns, Nebuchadnezzar took his chief delight in promoting the material welfare and the religion of his country. The inscriptions left by him show him to have been a truly paternal and pious prince.

He says, for example: "Marduk Lord, the first of gods, thou mighty prince, thou hast created me, thou hast committed to me royal dominion over the multitude of the people, I love thy majesty as my precious life. Save thy city of Babylon. . . . I am the king, the Restorer, who delights thy heart, the zealous ruler, the restorer of all thy cities." Temples which had lain in ruins for many hundred years were restored by Nebuchadnezzar, and new buildings in all parts of Babylonia attested the king's energy and piety.

His main care was bestowed on the capital. Besides erecting fine temples and palaces, he girdled the city with vast fortifications. The outermost wall embraced a large arable district, which could largely support the city population during a long siege. Babylon became the greatest trading centre of the

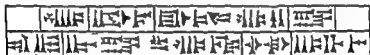
ancient world. Its wealth led to a luxury and a licence which have given to the name Babylon the proverbial meaning of an immoral city.

The successors of Nebuchadnezzar were unworthy of their mighty ancestor. Their weak rule lost them the respect of the people, and when Cyrus the Great approached Babylon as a conqueror, its inhabitants gladly hailed him as their new sovereign (538). Thereafter the history of Mesopotamia was merged in that of the larger Persian empire.

Babylonian Excavations.—The study of Babylonian antiquities, called *Assyriology*, is the most modern branch of historical learning. Except the information afforded in the Old Testament, and by some Greek historians, which does not give a correct idea of the Babylonians, nothing was known about these people until the middle of the nineteenth century. In 1842 the English scholar *Layard* began to search the mounds in Mesopotamia, which many travellers had mistaken for natural hills. His labours were at once richly rewarded. He uncovered the ruins of buildings, filled with sculptures and inscriptions, which had lain forgotten for over two thousand years. Since then numerous expeditions of scholars have been sent by various governments and universities of Europe and America. They have unearthed the treasures of ancient art and literature, by means of which an invaluable chapter in the history of man has been written anew.

Cuneiform Writing.—The Babylonian system of writing originated from picture writing. But, unlike the Egyptians, the Babylonians early abandoned the

clumsier system for a more practical form. The letters were engraved on stone or brick, or more commonly they were written on soft clay tablets, which were afterwards baked. The writing was done with a style ending in a little sharp triangle, and the letters all had the shape of a wedge. (*Cunei-form* = wedge-form.) The size and position of the wedge determined its meaning. To save space on the heavy material, the letters often were written very minutely, so that they could only be read with a magnifying glass. The cuneiform system of writing spread with Babylonian culture all over



CUNEIFORM INSCRIPTION.

Western Asia. Cuneiform despatches to the Pharaoh have been found in Egypt, proving that Babylonian was the ruling language of that time, somewhat as English is now the dominant language. The Persians continued to use the cuneiform system until the fourth century B.C.

Libraries.—The knowledge of reading and writing was quite general among the Babylonian people. Books were numerous. About 180,000 texts have been found so far, although only a small fraction of the ancient city sites has been explored. Regular libraries were established in many cities. The most famous is the Royal Library at Nineveh, which was discovered by Layard. The books were methodically catalogued, and the people were allowed to read them.

Religion.—The literature preserved on the clay books is mostly religious. Religion played almost as great a part in ancient Mesopotamia as it did in the Nile valley. While the separate districts had their local gods and superstitions, the gods of leading cities, above all, those of Babylon, rose to national influence. Victorious kings made the spreading of their religious cult their special care. *Ashur*, who has been mentioned as the principal deity of Nineveh, differed chiefly in name from *Marduk*, the city god of Babylon. These and lesser gods were all thought to be very human. They were born, lived, loved, fought, and even died, like the people on the earth. Their divinity was displayed chiefly by superior power and wisdom. Local gods were generally called *Bel* (= Lord), in addition to their other names. Thus *Bel Nippur* was the Lord of the city of Nippur. Later *Bel* became also the title of a separate divinity, whose worship centered in Babylon. The Phoenicians, whose religion was much like that of Babylon, called the Lord 'Baal.' Hence the term *Baal* worship is applied to all the Semitic religions of Western Asia, which differed from the Jewish belief. Through the Old Testament, *Baal* worship has come to have the contemptible meaning of a debased cult.

Babylonian Law.—Next to religious texts, different kinds of legal documents form the greatest proportion of the cuneiform tablets. The Babylonians had a minutely developed system of law, and were very careful in its observance. No marriage and no business transaction was valid without a written contract, sealed by both parties. The *Code of Hammurabi*

formed the groundwork of Babylonian legislation until the fall of the empire. The king claimed that its laws were dictated to him by a god.

A few extracts from it will serve best to illustrate the condition of Babylonian society: "Clause 21. If any one has broken a hole in a house, he shall be killed and buried in front of that hole. Clause 55. If any one opens his irrigation canals to let in water, but is careless and the water floods the field of his neighbour, he shall measure out grain to the latter in proportion to the yield of the neighbouring field. Clause 195. If a son has struck his father, his hands shall be cut off. Clause 196. If a person destroys the eye of a free-born man, his eye shall be destroyed. Clause 200. If a man knocks out the teeth of a man who is his equal, his teeth shall be knocked out."

Architecture.—The Babylonian and Assyrian kings, like the Pharaohs, liked to show their power and resources by erecting great buildings. Their structures excelled in size rather than in beauty and durability. The chief building material was sun-dried brick, which could not long resist the wash of the heavy annual rains. Most curious were the *Tower Temples*, which consisted of big solid terraces rising in pyramidal shape high above the plains. *The Temple of the Seven Spheres*, near Babylon, consisted of seven such terraces. Each was faced with glazed brick of a different colour, and was sacred to one of the planets. The topmost and smallest one was covered with gold plates, and sacred to the sun. The royal palaces were very extensive, but simple in structure. Their walls were sumptuously decorated with paintings, and the gates were guarded by huge statues of winged bulls with human heads. None of

these buildings lasted very long. At present they look like hills of earth in the Mesopotamian plain, but below the protective covering the walls, pavements, sculptures, and inscriptions have remained untouched until the scientific inquirers of Europe brought them back to light.

Science.—The Babylonians made some attempts at a methodical study of zoology, botany, and geography. These appear quite childish, however, beside the corresponding modern sciences. In astronomy they were more successful. The Chaldaean astronomers in the reign of Sargon I. were already able to foretell eclipses. It is unlikely that astronomy was cultivated entirely for its own sake. The Babylonians had full faith in astrology, that old superstition, which credits the stars with the power to decide human destiny. Astronomical observations were conducted chiefly for the sake of telling fortunes through astrology.

CHAPTER III

THE PHOENICIANS

The Land and the People.—Phoenicia was the ancient name of a coast strip of Syria about two hundred miles in length, and from three to seventeen miles in width. The little country was most favourably situated between the Lebanon mountains and the Mediterranean. The soil was of great fertility, but could of course nourish only a small population on its limited area. The coast was rocky and broken, affording by its many bays and islands numerous safe harbours. To these local advantages for ocean trade was added the central position of the country between Egypt and Mesopotamia, which made Phoenicia the natural emporium¹ for exchanges between those ancient seats of civilization.

The *Phoenicians* made the fullest use of their opportunities since the earliest recorded times. They were the famous trading nation of antiquity. Commerce and industry were their sole aim and pursuit. In all other matters they were content to copy their neighbours. Being of Semitic race, they had a language

¹ Em-pōr-ium, a town with much commerce; the commercial centre of a country.

similar to the Babylonian. From the Babylonians also they took over their religion and most of their culture, in so far as it was not based on Egyptian models.

Phoenician History.—The Phoenicians never formed a single nation. Each city with its adjoining farm lands constituted a little state for itself. The most powerful city was at times recognized as ruling over all the others, without, however, interfering in their domestic affairs. This leadership fell first to *Sidon*, and later to *Tyre*. The Phoenicians had no interest in history, and left no literature or other historic records. What little is known about them is gleaned from the records of the various nations which came in contact with them. The Old Testament mentions *Hiram*, king of Tyre, who made a league with Solomon, and sent him Phoenician artisans and materials for constructing the temple in Jerusalem. The Phoenicians did not value political independence, but submitted quite readily to foreign masters, provided that their trade was not injured. Hence Egyptian, Assyrian, and Babylonian records refer to them as tributaries of these respective powers at different times. Later they fell under Persian, then under Greek, and finally under Roman authority. Their sea power had been almost destroyed before the days of Alexander the Great.

Phoenician Trade.—The Phoenician merchants penetrated by sea and land to all parts of the Western world, where there was any profit to be made. Their caravans went to Assyria, Arabia, and Egypt. They traded with India in the East, with Spain, Britain,

and even the Baltic coast in the West. Wherever they went, they established trading posts for local centres of exchange. As their vessels were small, they also needed many harbours for refuge and rest on distant voyages. Cyprus, the Black Sea coast, Malta, Sicily, and Spain were all occupied before 1000 B.C. The Phoenicians never tried to conquer these places, but only settled for trade. When they engaged in war, it was for the protection of commerce. Silver from Spain, tin from Britain, gold, ivory, and spices from the East, various manufactures from Egypt and Babylon, were their principal staples. Most profitable of all was the *slave trade*. In early times many slaves were stolen by piracy and kidnapping. Later the Phoenician slave dealers followed in the train of Assyrian or Babylonian armies, and bought for next to nothing the captives, whom they sold at high figures on the slave markets.

The Phoenicians as Carriers of Civilization.—The great historic merit of the Phoenicians lies in this, that they carried with their wares the arts and inventions of Egypt and Mesopotamia. While selling the products of those countries in Greece and Italy, they could not help teaching the buyers many new ideas at the same time. Most valuable was their dissemination of *alphabetical writing*. It is not yet certain whence the Phoenicians borrowed the alphabet. In any case, they used it for their accounts, and so taught it to the Greeks. Through the latter it has been handed on, with slight changes, to the later European countries.

CHAPTER IV

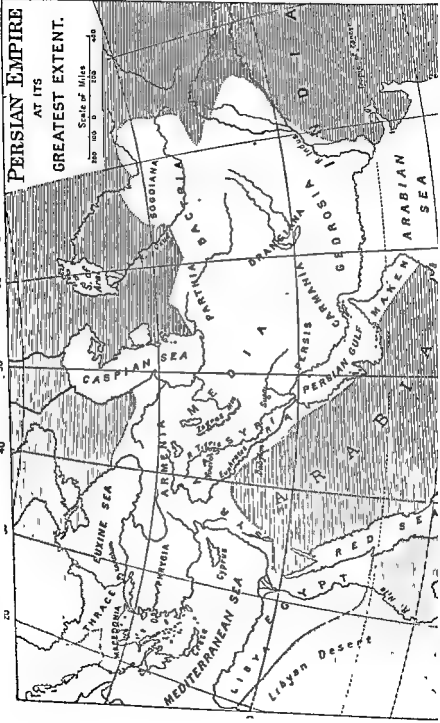
THE PERSIANS

The Home of the Persians is the high table-land of Iran. In prehistoric times they had migrated from some other part of Eurasia, where they had been connected with tribes of the same *Aryan* race and language. The approximate date of their conquest of Iran cannot be determined. They arrived there as nomads, and had not yet assumed the habits of a long settled race, when they suddenly rose to be the rulers of Western Asia. The centre of the Iranian table-land is an immense salty desert, unfit to support any kind of life. On all sides of the plateau are wild mountain ranges, interspersed with dry steppes and fruitful valleys. There lived the first Aryans who founded an empire in the West, the people who produced *Zoroaster* and *Cyrus the Great*.

Zoroaster.—That the early Persians were a people of superior character, is proved by the rise among them of *Zoroastrianism*. This system of religion and philosophy is ascribed to the sage Zoroaster, who lived about 1000 B.C. He saw all about him the striking contrast between good and evil things: between the blooming valleys and the deadly desert,

PERSIAN EMPIRE AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT.

Scale of Miles
0 100 200 400



between health and disease, between virtue and vice, between orderly government and the anarchy of ravaging nomads. These observations led him to teach that the world was governed by two forces. The good god of light he called *Ormuzd*, and the evil god of darkness *Ahriman*. The latter created all evil passions, poisonous animals, and the various destructive forces of nature, and fought with them against the good creations of Ormuzd. The duty of every man was to aid in the overthrow of the evil god by practising virtue, and by laboring in every possible way to promote the welfare of mankind. Agriculture was sacred, because every foot of land reclaimed from wilderness extended the dominion of Ormuzd. After a long struggle, so Zoroaster taught, evil would be finally overthrown, and good would rule over all the world.

Much of this system had grown up among the Persians before Zoroaster, but he reformed and expanded the old teachings, somewhat as Confucius based his doctrines on the sayings of the ancient sages. The Persians kept Zoroastrianism as their religion until the middle of the seventh century A.D., when it was driven out by the Mohammedans. The adherents of Zoroaster, who fled before the Mohammedans to India, and there kept the faith almost unchanged to the present day, are called *Parsees*.

Cyrus the Great.—During the later years of the Assyrian empire (before 600 B.C.) the *Medes*, under King *Cyaxares*, were masters in Iran, and the Persians were their chief vassals. An alliance with Babylonia, and the resulting destruction of Nineveh,

divided the control of Western Asia between the Medes and the Babylonians. Only the western half of Asia Minor formed the independent kingdom of *Lydia*. This state was rapidly growing in wealth and power at the same time, while the Median empire was expanding over Iran, and while Nebuchadnezzar was seizing the rest of Western Asia. Lydia reached the height of its prosperity under *Croesus*, a king of such fabulous wealth that his name still stands as a synonym for an immensely rich man. His capital was *Sardis*, the principal city in Asia Minor. Among his subjects were also the *Greeks* settled along the Aegæan coast of Asia Minor. When Lydia was annexed to the Persian empire, these Greeks became Persian subjects, an event which proved to be of momentous consequence for both parties.

Only fifty years after the fall of Nineveh, the dominion of the Medes was suddenly overthrown by the Persian king *Cyrus*. Having humbled the Median king, this great general quickly brought the neighboring countries under Persian authority, and frightened the rulers of Lydia and Babylonia by his conquests. The boundary between Lydia and the new Persian dominions was formed by the river *Halys*, which flows from the middle of Asia Minor into the Black Sea. Croesus struck the first blow in a struggle which seemed inevitable, by leading an army over the Halys. But the superior generalship of Cyrus quickly ended the campaign. Lydia was incorporated in the Persian empire, and Sardis henceforth was the seat of a Persian governor. At the close of Babylonian history it has already been mentioned that

Mesopotamia, also fell under the rule of Cyrus. In the East his conquests included modern *Afghanistan*.

Cyrus well deserved to be called the "Great." His victories were not stained by Assyrian cruelty. He was a kind and just ruler. He allowed the Jews to return to their home country, and to conduct religious services in their restored temple at Jerusalem. All accounts agree in regarding him as the best and most fatherly of the many despotic kings who have reigned over Western Asia.

Darius I.—After the death of Cyrus the Great, the Persian empire continued for three hundred years, until 330 B.C. It produced one more truly great man, *Darius I.*, who was king during forty years before and after 500 B.C. When Darius ascended the throne, the vast empire was shaken by rebellions in every quarter. These the king quelled promptly and energetically. Then he led an army into India, and made a Persian province of the Punjab. Some years later he crossed the Hellespont and the lower Danube, and penetrated far into what is now Southern Russia. There lived the nomadic *Scythians*, fierce barbarians, who had long been a terror to the countries south of them by their cruel invasions. Though Darius could not force these horsemen to battle, because they kept retreating before him, he yet inspired them with a fear of Persian power. On the return march he left a general in Europe, who subjected *Thrace*, a country not far north of Greece.

Persian Government.—Darius is best known for his *Organization* of the Persian Government. Until

his time, conquered countries kept their own local administration, and were only watched by garrisons of soldiers. Whenever a governor of a province felt strong enough, he would stop sending tribute, and declare himself independent. Hence arose the numerous rebellions and the sudden changes of government. A strong and ready army was the only guarantee of permanent rule. Darius ended this state of disorder by some wise innovations. He appointed three high officials for every province: a general, a governor, called *satrap*, and a secretary. All three were personally responsible to the king. The general commanded the provincial forces, but depended on the satrap for the pay of the soldiers. The secretary was also a kind of spy, who reported to the Great King at once if his colleagues seemed to plan any treachery. On receipt of an order from the king, they could be put to death without trial. A province was called a *satrapy*, and the form of government is referred to as satrapal.

The system was a step forward, but still very faulty, if compared with modern government. There was no proper taxation. Each satrap sent large annual payments in money or in kind (*i.e.* horses, cattle, cereals, etc.) to the Great King. The heavy expenses of the three high officers and their retinues were also pressed out of the people of the province. No official had any salary, but was assigned some district or city from which he could "squeeze" his own revenue.

The two and a half centuries following the death

of Darius proved the value of his reforms. His successors grew steadily weaker and lazier through luxury. The kings were regarded like gods, and no one was given access to their persons except by permission of officers called their 'eyes and ears.' Alexander the Great found the seemingly mighty Persia an easy prey for his small Greek army.

· CHAPTER V

THE ANCIENT ORIENTAL COUNTRIES

Introduction.—The ancient Western world was grouped around the Mediterranean. Whatever Africa and Europe boasted of civilization was to be found within easy reach of that sea. A link with the East was afforded by the countries which enjoyed sea or land communication with India, viz. by Egypt, Phoenicia, the Mesopotamian countries, and Persia. The bold traders who crossed the Indian Ocean in quest of silk stuffs, spices, ivory, and other eastern merchandize, also brought back glowing tales of Indian riches. Compared with later times, however, the Indian trade was insignificant, and until the fourth century before Christ India remained a fabulous country to most of the Mediterranean peoples. Ancient Indian history took a course apart from that of the West. India was a world apart, shut off both from its western and its eastern neighbours by huge mountain barriers and by dangerous seas.

The countries east of India remained quite unknown to the ancient West until the time of the Roman Empire. For travellers who could barely brave the journey to India, the far greater distances and dangers of a voyage to China were insurmountable. The civilization radiating out from the basin of the Huang Ho (Yellow River) had for centuries taken root throughout eastern Asia, before even an echo of Greece or Rome reached China. Even between India and China there was little intercourse.

In ancient times, therefore, history ran in three separate channels: the Mediterranean, the Indian, and the Far Eastern. The narrative in this book will show how the three streams gradually approached one another until they united in modern times into the vast current of the world's history.

The unification of the modern world is almost entirely the work of the Mediterranean and Germanic races. To their history the present book must be chiefly devoted, while the eastern peoples can be included only in so far as is indispensable for an understanding of the modern world.

I. INDIA.

Indian Geography cannot be treated here, but should be reviewed by every student who wishes to gain an elementary grasp of the country's history. The chief determining factors for the history of the people are:

(1) The barrier of the *Himalaya Mountains* and their outrunners. Passes in the north-east and north-west have allowed invaders to descend on the country. Notably through the *Khaibar Pass* and other routes from Afghanistan into the Punjab hosts of Aryans, Turks, and Mongols have at various times overrun the Indian plains.

(2) The fertile *plain* watered by the *Indus* and its tributaries on the western, the *Ganges* on the northern and eastern side of the country. Here have always lain the wonderful cities which were the fountain heads of civilization amid a teeming farming population.

(3) The three-cornered table-land known as the *Deccan*, comprising most of the southern peninsula.

Its mountains have protected the ancient native population against invading enemies.

(4) **The Hot Climate.**—The tropical or subtropical heat reigning in most of India has tended to enervate the inhabitants. Invading races coming from the cooler mountain regions lost their original fighting qualities in the hothouse air of the plains. Hence they had less power of resistance against fresh enemies coming centuries later.

The Original Inhabitants of India.—In prehistoric times struggles for the soil of India went on between various dark-skinned races. Many of them were naked savages who lived as hunters in the forests. Others had made some advance toward civilization, practised agriculture and built walled cities. Remnants of these ancient races are still found in the remoter mountain valleys of the Deccan and of the Himalayas. So numerous, in fact, are the tribes encountered in India that it has aptly been called a huge ethnological museum.

A scientific study of their languages has proved them to belong to three stocks. First, the Tibeto-Burman tribes are found along the slopes of the Himalayas. Secondly, the Kolarians live chiefly in the mountains of the north-eastern Deccan. Thirdly, the Dravidians possess the southern half of the Deccan.

The Aryan Conquest of India.—At some period before 2000 B.C. white-skinned invaders from the north-west entered the Punjab, and gradually made themselves masters of all Northern India. These Aryans came from the same old home, somewhere in Western Asia or in Europe, whence the ancestors of the Greeks,

Romans, and Teutons had started on their careers of conquest. They had the same large eyes and prominent noses as their Western cousins. Even to-day the Aryan Hindus, though browned by many centuries of exposure to a burning sun, still have the features of Western Europeans rather than of Mongolians or of negroid races.

Common Origin of European and Indian Languages and Religions.—The kinship of Indians and Europeans is also traceable in their literature and religion. Many common words are almost identical in Latin or German on the one hand, and in Indian speech on the other. *Sanskrit*, the ancient literary language of the Indian Aryans, bears a close resemblance to the chief European languages. The gods worshipped by the early Indians differed little from the divinities of the Greeks and Romans. In India and on the Mediterranean alike the original religion was a nature worship, in which the heaven, the sea, the clouds, the fire, and other natural phenomena were adored as personal beings. The Sanskrit word 'deva' (the shining one), meaning a god, is found again in the Latin 'deus' (god) and in the English 'Divin-ity.'

The Vedas.—Our knowledge of the prehistoric Aryans is based on a collection of religious and legendary poems called the Vedas. The oldest of these, the *Rig-Veda*, was composed about 1400 B.C., while the Aryans were still fighting with the dark-skinned aborigines. Aside from their literary beauty, the Vedas reveal much about the language, the religion, the customs, and laws of the ancient Indians.

Rise of the Four Castes.—Some centuries after the Aryan conquest there arose that caste system which has characterized India to the present day. The

families who knew all the Vedic hymns by heart became a hereditary priestly class, known as the *Brahmans*. Those who exchanged the once honorable work of farming for a purely military life formed the warrior caste, called *Rajputs* or *Kshattrias*. The free Aryan farmers formed a third caste by the name of *Vaisyas*, while the subject non-Aryan tribes, obliged to work as serfs for the ruling race, were the despised caste of the *Sudras*.

The Greeks in India (327 to 161 B.C.).—In 327 B.C. Alexander the Great marched into India (see ch. x.). He made alliances with native princes, founded cities, and left Greek garrisons. Some of Alexander's successors kept up relations with Indian rulers, but the Greek influence was not strong enough to leave a permanent mark on the country.

II. CHINA.

Chinese Geography shows such a variety of soil and climate, that even the most rudimentary outline of it would far exceed the limits of this book. China enjoys the finest natural waterways in the world, great arteries of trade, which have been extended by canals. The easy interchange of products between the north and the south on the one hand, and between the coast provinces and the interior on the other, made China practically a self-sufficing country. She had little need of foreign goods. But the main reason for China's isolation lay in the high mountain ranges and vast deserts which fence off her western and northern frontiers. The long coast line, so open to attack

from modern fleets, had no enemies to fear before the Portuguese found the sea way to the Far East.

To sum up: the geographical conditions of China were such as, first, to favor the growth of a great civilized nation, and secondly, to isolate that nation from other civilized peoples living farther west.

The Chinese People lived in the middle valley of the Yellow River nearly five thousand years ago. Whether they were aborigines or invaders from the north-west is uncertain, though the former theory is probably correct. By force of arms, and through their superiority in all the arts of peace, the Chinese gradually annexed all the territories occupied by the surrounding native races. The latter, related by race to the Chinese, were finally absorbed by inter-marriage. The similarity of the conquering and the conquered races explains why the present population of China is so remarkably uniform in appearance throughout that vast empire. In this respect, China is the exact opposite of India, and several small European states can show a greater diversity of population than the Middle Kingdom, which counts 400 million inhabitants, or about the same number as all Europe.

The Earliest History of China is preceded by a mythical and a half-mythical period, when rulers of heroic strength and wonderful virtue are said to have performed miraculous labors for the benefit of mankind. Reliable historical information can be extracted from the annals of the *Shu-ching*, reaching back to 2300 B.C. At that period China was a feudal state occupying approximately the territory of present

THE CHINESE EMPIRE
UNDER SHIH HYANG-YI.

UNDER SHIH HYANG-YI.

***D*ivided into
thirty sin provinces.**

China north of the Yangtse river. A well-organized government and an extensive knowledge of agriculture, silk growing, and mining, prove that many centuries of development must already have been passed.

The feudal system was perfected by *Wu Wang*, the founder of the *Chow Dynasty* (B.C. 1122-249). Wu Wang is still famous through his work for the welfare of the people. He founded schools throughout his dominions, and established infirmaries for the aged, proofs of a humane statesmanship which cannot at this early period be paralleled in any other part of the world. But the independent authority given to the great feudal lords tended to make them disobedient to their royal master. Like the later kings of mediaeval Germany, the rulers of the Chow Dynasty gradually lost all control over the turbulent nobility, and the country was thrown into a chronic state of civil war.

Foundation of the United Chinese Empire by Shih Hwang-ti (B.C. 246-221).—The Chow Dynasty, and with it the feudal system, lasted for nearly nine centuries. It was a period rich in great men, among whom Lao-tze, Confucius, and Mencius were pre-eminent. So long, however, as the 'Middle Kingdom' of the Chow rulers was surrounded by rival feudal principalities, the political strength of the people was wasted by internal feuds. Only by union could the country attain its highest national development.

The task of welding the feudal states into a single nation was completed by the renowned Chung or *Shih Hwang-ti*, second ruler of the T'sin Dynasty. He had the genius of a statesman and of a general, and he knew how to make use of able men for his

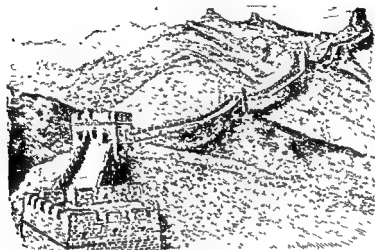
purpose of becoming sole ruler of China. He had a will power which could rise to acts of savage cruelty against those who opposed him.

Chung wished to break with the past, and to remodel the whole government. He abolished the fiefs, and divided the empire into thirty-six provinces, ruled each by three officials directly responsible to him. The governor or viceroy, the general, and the treasurer, who at the present day are the heads of the provincial administration, correspond closely to the officials created by Shih-Hwang-ti. The Persian government, as instituted by Darius, had a similar arrangement. Instead of the title 'Wang' (King), Chung assumed that of Hwang-ti (Sovereign and Divine Ruler).

The Great Wall.—To check the invasions of the Huns, the emperor ordered the building of the Great Wall. Parts of this remarkable structure had already been reared by princes of the northern border, and were now joined into one continuous fortification, nearly 2000 miles in length. The Great Wall is the largest building in the world. But it did not prevent the Huns from continuing their invasions.

The Burning of the Classics.—Shih Hwang-ti was strongly opposed by the conservative literati, who advocated a return to the old feudal regime. They constantly quoted the Classics in support of their policy. To silence the voice of the past, the emperor ordered that all classical books, and notably the works of Confucius, should be burned. The barbarous order was enforced with the utmost rigor. Fortunately many scholars knew the Classics by heart, so that the books could later be re-written from memory.

Shih Hwang-ti's name has deservedly been despised by all Chinese scholars. But his misdeeds cannot rob him of the merit of having been the true founder of United China. As such he ranks among the greatest builders of empire in all history.



THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

The Han Dynasty (B.C. 206-A.D. 25) and the Later Han Dynasty (A.D. 25-221).—Under the weak successor of Shih Hwang-ti the empire fell again into disorder. But the union was quickly re-established by Liu-Pang, known by the dynastic title *Kau Ti*, as the founder of the *Han Dynasty*. The fruits of union were now reaped by a vast extension of sovereignty to the south and west. The constant attacks of the Hiungnu (Huns) finally induced the imperial generals to attack the barbarians in their own territory. Chinese armies invaded Central Asia, and by their victories extended the boundaries of the empire to the shores of the Caspian Sea. Chinese

colonists were settled in the north-western border lands, and proved a better barrier against the nomads than the Great Wall.

The period of the Han Dynasty was one of general prosperity and of intellectual activity. In memory of that glorious time the Chinese still like to call themselves 'Men of Han.'

The T'ang Dynasty (A.D. 618-908).—During the four centuries after the Han Dynasty China suffered from internal wars and foreign invasions. The Huns finally conquered the northern parts of China, and set up a kingdom of their own, called Wei, which lasted from A.D. 386 to 534.

A new era of prosperity came to China with the T'ang Dynasty.

Wells Williams¹ says: "During the two hundred and eighty-seven years they held the throne China was probably the most civilized country on earth; the darkest days of the West, when Europe was wrapped in the ignorance and degradation of the Middle Ages, formed the brightest era of the East. They exercised a humanizing effect on all the surrounding countries, and led their inhabitants to see the benefits and understand the management of a government where the laws were above the officers."

The second emperor of this family, known by the title of Tai-tsung (Our Exalted Ancestor), will ever be revered for his wisdom and humanity. He encouraged learning, spread education, and caused historical records to be drawn up with the greatest care. He made personal tours through the provinces to see the condition of the people, and drew up an

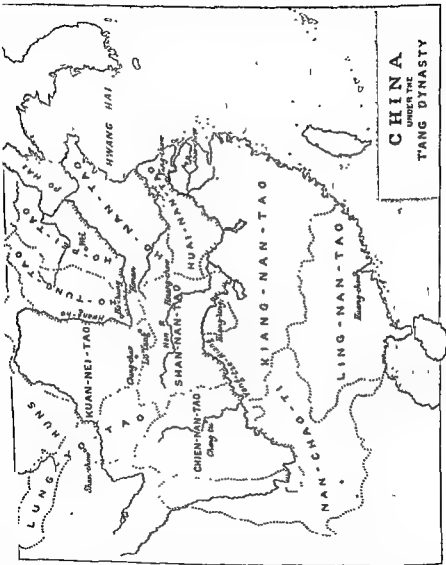
¹ Author of an excellent work on China, entitled *The Middle Kingdom*.

improved code of laws. Though he preferred the quiet life of a scholar, he also won glory by his prowess and his generalship. The Turkish tribes of Central Asia were subjugated, and the confines of the empire were again extended to the Persian border and the Caspian Sea. The conquest of Corea, begun by Tai-tsung, was completed by his successor. Ambassadors from Indian states, from Persia, and from the Byzantine emperor Theodosius, came to Tai-tsung's court to express the friendship of their sovereigns.

The Contrast between Chinese and European History.—The close of the T'ang Dynasty brings us to the tenth century A.D., far into the period reckoned as the Middle Ages of Western history. For China the history of a thousand years ago must be considered as modern. Since the overthrow of feudalism, about two thousand one hundred years ago, China has not experienced any deep-seated changes which can be compared to the transformation of Europe after the fall of the Roman Empire. Modern and mediaeval European conditions are so different that they can hardly be compared. Chinese conditions in the nineteenth and the ninth century are so much alike that it would be difficult to find many points of difference.

The Government of China.—The Chinese state is ordered somewhat like a great family. The Emperor is considered as the father and mother of his subjects, and has over them the absolute authority which the father used to wield in the families of many ancient countries. He is the law-giver, the judge, and the high priest of the nation. Just as the head of a family sacrifices to the ancestors in the name of all its members, so the Emperor brings a yearly sacrifice to Heaven in the name of the whole nation. A government of this

CHINA



kind is called a *patriarchal monarchy* (*patr* = father, *archal* = ruling). The earliest governments of Greece, Rome, Judaea, and other countries were patriarchal monarchies. Nowhere else has this ancient institution been preserved so long and with so little change as in China. In practice, of course, the Emperor cannot personally regulate the affairs of 400 million subjects. As early as 2000 years B.C., there was a strictly graded hierarchy of officials to carry on the royal government. The officials are appointed directly or indirectly by the Emperor, and owe their first appointment to a thorough knowledge of the Classics, the candidates being selected by regular literary examinations.¹

Liberties of the People.—While the Chinese government is nominally an absolutism, it is far from being a despotism like that of most Oriental countries. Public opinion is respected by the officials. In purely local affairs the people enjoy a large measure of self-government. The heads of the families in a village elect their own headman. He guides all the corporate business of the community, settles disputes between the families, and represents the village in its dealings with the imperial officials. There is no European country, save England, in which the individual is so little interfered with by the government as in China.

The Chinese Family.—The unit of Chinese society is the family rather than the single citizen. The family is the basis of the state. The rules of filial piety and of brotherly helpfulness regulate minutely the relations of the family members towards each other. All owe strict obedience to the head of the family. He has the same '*patria potestas*' (in Latin, fatherly authority) which was exercised by the father in earliest Rome, where he could even punish the disobedient son with death. There is, in fact, the closest resemblance between early Roman and present Chinese family law.

It is mainly through the strict conservation of the family system that the Chinese state has preserved itself unchanged until the present day. Besides its admirable features, the

¹ The reforms mentioned in the last chapter have changed the system.

system also has some serious drawbacks. The duty of the older toward the younger generation is little touched upon. The ethics of the family support the past, but do not help the rising generation, on whom the future depends. An industrious younger brother frequently must give up his earnings to support in idleness a crowd of older relatives. Hence the forces of conservatism have always been stronger in China than in any other country of mediæval or modern times.

The Superiority of Chinese Civilization.—The civilization of China was carried into Korea, Japan, and the states of the Indo-Chinese peninsula. What the Far East possesses in arts, literature, and philosophy is almost wholly, directly or indirectly, the product of the Chinese genius. In two respects Chinese civilization stands superior to any other. First, in the number of people that have lived under it; secondly, in the length of its existence. The Greek civilization of the fourth century B.C. has lived on to the present day only as one of several elements in modern Western civilization, while the Chinese civilization of the same period has continued unbroken and almost unchanged to the beginning of the twentieth century.

III. JAPAN.

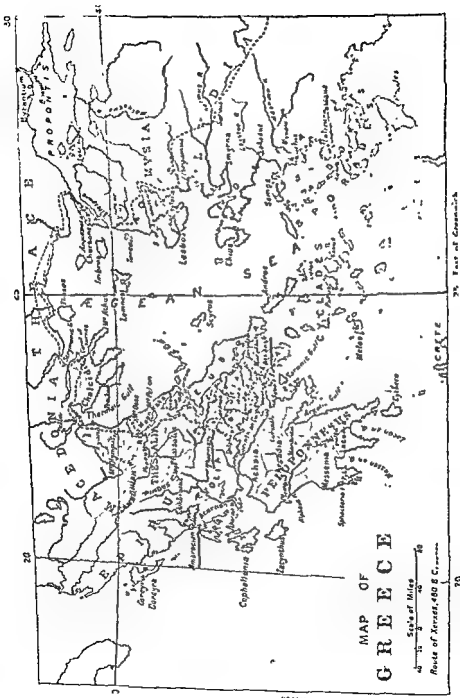
The Country and the People.—Japan, called Nippon in the native tongue, consists of a chain of islands, large and small, stretching from Kamchatka in the cold north to Taiwan (Formosa) in the South China Sea. The large, central group of islands, which constitutes Japan proper, has all the natural advantages required for the growth of a powerful, sea-faring nation. Japanese mariners sailed their ships to all the coasts of Eastern and Southern Asia. The sea protected

Japan from the Tartar invasions, from which the neighbouring China had to suffer. What the Great Wall could not effectively do for China, the ocean did freely for Japan.

The Japanese are of Mongolian race, and seem more closely related to the Coreans than to the Chinese. They came originally from the Asiatic continent and supplanted barbarous aborigines, of whom the hairy *Ainus* in the northern island of Yesso are descendants. The Japanese are distinguished above all other Asiatics by their facility in adopting and imitating foreign ideas and inventions.

The Beginnings of Japanese History.—*Jimmu Tenno*, the first Mikado or emperor, is said to have conquered the southern part of the largest island in the year 660 B.C. He is still worshipped as the ancestor of the ruling dynasty, and Japanese chronology begins with the year of his accession. Japanese history before the Christian era is largely mixed with fable. More reliable ground is reached with the third century after Christ. At that period the empress *Jingu* led an expedition into Corea, and the southern part of the peninsula became tributary to Japan.

Introduction of Chinese Civilization.—The Korean expedition opened a new era for Japan. The Coreans stood wholly under the influence of the neighbouring Chinese civilization, and they soon communicated the industries, arts, and literature of China to their overlords. The Chinese Classics became an essential part of Japanese learning. In architecture, painting, and letters, the Japanese improved on their models and developed a truly national art and literature.



MAP OF GREECE

Scale of Miles
0 10 20 40
Route of Xerxes, 480 B.C.

CHAPTER VI

GREEK HISTORY TO THE PERSIAN WARS

The Geography of Greece, and its Influence on History.
—Greece proper is the southern, narrow part of the Balkan peninsula. Though it is very small, mountain barriers divide it into many districts. As most of the mountains were hard to cross, each district began its local development separately from the others. In consequence many little states grew up, but no united nation was ever formed. The coast of Greece is deeply indented by many bays, containing good harbors. Numerous islands lie both in the *Ionian Sea* on the west, and in the *Aegæan Sea* on the east. The Aegæan archipelago connects with the west shore of Asia Minor, which is similar to Greece proper, and was also settled by Greeks. Navigation and trade arose naturally among people so well situated. The climate of Greece was very agreeable, the soil was mostly fertile, and the scenery beautiful. Altogether, Greece was a country well fitted by nature to become the home of a progressive race.

The following geographical names are of importance: *Northern Greece* lay between the *Cambunian Mountains* on the north and a line drawn from the

Ambracian Gulf to the *Malian Gulf* on the south. To the north, near the sea, was *Mount Olympus*, believed to be the home of the Greek gods. The only good road into central Greece led through the pass of *Thermopylae*, a narrow passage between steep mountains and the *Malian Gulf*. *Central Greece* reached to the *Corinthian Gulf* and the *Isthmus of Corinth*. It included the district of *Attica*, with the capital *Athens*. Almost in the exact centre of central Greece lay *Delphi*, which the Greeks considered to be the centre of the earth. Further east, in the district of *Boeotia*, was the city of *Thebes*. The isthmus of *Corinth* got its name from a wealthy commercial city situated there. Southern Greece, generally called the *Peloponnesus*, had *Sparta* in the district of *Laconia* for its leading city. Opposite the coast of *Attica* and *Boeotia* lay the long island of *Euboea*, called *Negropont* on modern maps. The most celebrated island in the *Aegean* was *Delos*, a sacred place. Of the numerous Greek cities in *Asia Minor*, *Ephesus* and *Miletus* were most notable.

Beginnings of Greece.—The Greeks were not the first inhabitants of the country named after them. They entered from the north or north-east, and gradually took possession of the coast of *Asia Minor*, the *Aegean* islands, and the *European* mainland. The oldest descriptions of Greek society are found in the poems of *Homer*, dating back to some time before 1000 B.C. At that period the Greeks were still a rough people, but with many pleasing qualities. They engaged in agriculture, kept flocks of sheep and cattle, and enjoyed hunting or war. Trade over

sea had begun, but went hand in hand with piracy. The government was a *monarchy*, in which the *king* stood over the tribe just as a father watches over the family. Public business was transacted by the king and the *Elders* of the noble families, either in the royal house, or in an open place near it, where all the freemen could listen. The elders could give their advice, but the king finally decided all matters personally. The common freemen were not allowed to join in discussion, but they showed their assent by shouting and their dissent by silence. The king was commander-in-chief during war, and had to fight at the head of the citizen soldiers. He also was the high priest, who sacrificed to the gods in the name of his people.



HOMER.

Love of Liberty.—The Greeks shared with most Aryan races a love for personal liberty. This is evident in the earliest times. Though the kings claimed to be descended from gods, they were not themselves considered divine, like the Pharaohs and the Babylonian despots. Their mode of life differed little from that of the free citizens. They were not secluded, could be approached by

anyone, and even took part in common field work. They had no such arbitrary power as the eastern monarchs. All the freemen considered that they had a personal interest in the government, in which, as above told, they actually took some part. In most of the Greek states the freemen gradually increased their own power, and diminished that of the king, until the government became an actual rule by the people or *democracy* (*demos* = people; *cracy* = rule). Under such a rule no man was master, but the people managed their own affairs.

City States.—A Greek state consisted of a walled city and the rural district surrounding it. Usually it had a separate sea-port, unless the city itself was situated directly on the coast. Ancient Greece was made up of hundreds of such little independent states. The citizens of every one were jealous of their own rights, and very patriotic. But their patriotism was strictly local. They cared nothing for the welfare of neighbouring states. On the contrary, if a city grew so powerful as to threaten the independence of its neighbours, these often combined against it, and tried by war to ruin the power of the sister state, rather than to be dominated by it.

Excessive Individualism.—The tendency to give the greatest possible amount of liberty to every single person is called 'individualism.' As already pointed out, the Greeks were almost the opposite of the Asiatics in this respect. Under the despotic governments of Egypt and Mesopotamia, the individual subject had no voice in public affairs. He could in no way assert his own will as against that

of the all-powerful king. In most of the Greek city states every citizen could come to the front, if only his talents were sufficient. Individual ability counted far more than inherited privilege. But in some respects Greek individualism went too far. Under every orderly government, the single persons must give up some rights for the benefit of the whole community. If all followed their private interests only, confusion would reign at once. In Greece it happened too often that able men preferred their private interests to those of the state. In the same way, the single states never could subordinate their local ambitions and hatreds to the welfare of the Greek nation. The Greeks were strong enough, if they had only united, to found a world-empire extending from Spain to India. But their excessive individualism misled them, and they ruined each other in petty wars, caused by local pride and jealousy.

Dorians and Ionians.—The Greeks were divided into several large branches, which differed somewhat in their language and customs. The leading branches were the *Dorians* and the *Ionians*. The individualism above described was best developed among the Ionians. Most of their states were democratic. The freedom of life and of work in the Ionian states largely accounts for the high perfection reached there in many branches of art and learning. The greatest Ionian city was *Athens*. The Dorians were a less gifted race: they were slower to learn and more conservative, but had more respect for authority. They generally preferred an aristocratic government (*aristo* = noble). *Sparta* was the dominant Dorian state.

The Age of the Tyrants (650-500 B.C.).—Most Greek governments began as monarchies. The nobles, who formed at first an advisory council, gradually took away the king's authority, and got the government entirely into their own hands. Their rule was then called an oligarchy (*olig*=a few, *archy*=government), or an aristocracy. Very commonly their rule gradually grew more arbitrary and oppressive. Taxes were paid by the common people, but public offices could be held only by nobles. In lawsuits, tried before the oligarchical magistrate, the poor man could not get justice, while the rich noble usually won his case. Naturally the common people grumbled at such oppression, and were ready to revolt at the first favourable moment. For this purpose they were often aided and led by some ambitious noble, who overthrew the oligarchy with the help of the people. And then, instead of establishing a democracy, the leader kept all power himself, and became sole ruler. Such a ruler was termed a *tyrant*. Of the many tyrants in Greek history, *Pisistratus* of Athens and his sons are best known. Their story will be briefly told below. Few tyrannies lasted more than three generations. Then the tyrants were killed or exiled by the people, who could not bear the idea of having a single man as their absolute master.

Greek Colonization.—The changes in government just described were generally accompanied by violent party struggles. The leaders of the defeated party did not wish to submit to the new rule, or they were exiled. In either case they had to look for

a new home. Thus party strife led to the founding of many colonies. Other causes led to the same result: among them over-population and love of adventure were most prominent. The colonists transplanted their religion and customs to their new homes, and thus Greek civilization was carried to most of the shores of the whole Mediterranean and the Black Sea. Southern Italy, up to the bay of Naples, was fringed with Greek colonies. *Tarentum*, which has survived in the modern Taranto, was once the richest Greek city in Italy. In Sicily the colony of *Syracuse* attained great fame and power. The westernmost Greek settlement was that of *Massilia*, the modern Marseilles. Among the colonies to the north, *Byzantium* is the most interesting. Its name was changed to *Constantinople* by the Roman emperor Constantine. Many Greeks settled, as we have already seen, in Egypt, and in the Twenty-Sixth Dynasty Amasis made over to them entirely a town called Naukratis, near Teh-el-Baroud, which formed a centre of Greek commerce and religion in Egypt. The Greek colonies were politically independent from their mother cities. But they formed centres of Greek culture all over the greater part of the Western world, as it was then known. All those countries and cities together, where the Greek language was spoken, were called *Hellas*. *Hellas*, then, was not a single continuous country, but was widely scattered, like the modern British empire.

Early History and Institutions of Sparta.—The Spartans have been mentioned as the leading Dorian people. They entered the Peloponnesus from the north, about 1100 B.C., and gradually conquered

the southern part of it. By the sixth century B.C., they stood at the head of all the states in the Peloponnesus, and were recognized as the first military power in the whole of Hellas.

Three Classes.—The district of which Sparta was the capital, was called *Laconia*, and its inhabitants were also known as *Lacedaemonians*. They were divided into three classes: the *Spartans*, the *Perioeci*, and the *Helots*. The first were descendants of the Dorian conquerors. They were few in number, only about one fourth of the *Perioeci*, and one twelfth of the lowest class. Only the Spartans were counted as citizens. They owned the best land, but left its tillage mostly to the lower classes. Their own life was like that of soldiers in camp: they prepared and drilled for war, when they were not actually engaged in it. The *Perioeci* were free to till their land, but had to pay tribute and render military service to the Spartans. The *Helots* were slaves, owned by the state, and distributed among the Spartan families.

The Constitution and Laws of Sparta are ascribed to *Lycurgus* (about 800 B.C.). Two kings acted as generals, high priests, and judges. Their authority was very limited, the government being in fact a kind of republic, in which the aristocracy had most of the power in its hands. The *Council of Elders* consisted of twenty-eight life members over sixty years of age. In this council all public measures were discussed before they were laid before the *Popular Assembly*, which gave the final decisions. All Spartans over thirty years old belonged to the

assembly. They were not allowed to discuss the business in hand, but only showed their opinion by shouting or by silence.

The Education and the Customs of the Spartans all served one purpose: to rear a race of strong and brave soldiers. Soon after birth, the babies were brought before the Council for inspection. Weakly ones were taken from the mothers and killed. At the age of seven the boys entered a public training school, where they were drilled in all kinds of military and gymnastic exercises. The education of their minds was entirely neglected. Music was taught, because the Spartans rightly believed that it raised the courage of the soldiers. In order to accustom the boys to pain and hardship, they were often beaten without cause, and were obliged to sleep on hard beds, with very little clothing. Their food was bad, and barely enough to satisfy hunger. The teachers liked it, if the boys stole additional food wherever they could find it, because in war time soldiers also were often obliged to search for hidden supplies. But if a boy was caught stealing, he got a terrible beating for having been so clumsy. The Spartans remained until old age under a severe military discipline. The men could not live with their families, but ate and slept together, like soldiers in camp. The education of the girls aimed at developing strong and healthy mothers. They also had to practise gymnastics, and contested in public dances and foot races. The married women, however, enjoyed much freedom, and exercised some influence over public affairs.

Results of the Spartan System.—Since the aim of Lycurgus was to make a nation of soldiers, his institutions must be considered excellent of their kind. The Spartans were, in fact, for several centuries, the best and most feared soldiers in Greece. But nothing else can be said in favour of the Spartan training. Of all the invaluable progress made by the Greeks, for the benefit of the whole later world, nothing is due to Sparta. While Athens rose to a height of culture, which is still admired by posterity, Sparta remained a big village of straw and mud, sheltering a semi-savage population. To the rest of Greece their military power did far more harm than good. They had no benefit from it themselves, because their whole lives were spent in the slavery of a military camp. The failure of the Spartan institutions to accomplish any worthy results helps to prove that man must seek superiority through rational cultivation of his mind rather than through brute strength.

Early History and Institutions of Athens.—The early government of Athens was like that of the Homeric times, outlined above. The internal history of the state shows first the gradual diminution of the royal power, and the growth of an aristocracy. This in turn had to yield to the demands of the common freeman for participation in the government. Step by step the power of the people increased, until they had practically the whole government in their hands. Thanks to the writings of several Greek historians, the development can be traced with sufficient clearness. For the student of governmental institutions,

the political growth of Athens is more instructive than any other part of her history. Therefore special stress will be laid on it here.

From Monarchy to Aristocracy.—The last hereditary king of Athens was *Codrus*, who reigned shortly before the year 1000 B.C. The legend said that Codrus died a heroic death in battle against the Spartans, laying down his life to save his country. Because no king could equal his goodness, the Athenians wished to have no more kings. Hence the son of Codrus received the title *Archon*, which meant ruler. For three centuries the archons were chosen for life, from the family of Codrus. Then their tenure of office was limited to ten years, and soon they were selected from any one of the noble families. During these changes the authority of the archon had been steadily lessened, while the council of nobles increased its power. Finally, in 682 B.C., the last traces of the ancient monarchy vanished. *Nine archons* were now chosen annually from among the nobles. One of them retained the name 'king-archon,' but his functions were merely those of a high priest. There was also a presiding archon, after whom the year was named, and a military archon. The other six were judges. To prevent any archon from assuming undue power, they were constantly watched by a council called the *Areopagus*, which annually chose the new archons. The outgoing magistrates became members of the *Areopagus*.

Discontent of the People: Insurrection of Cylon.—The nobles conducted the government in a selfish manner, disregarding the interests of the great majority of

the citizens. There were no published laws, and the magistrates often decided cases to favour their friends rather than to grant justice. The common people had special cause for complaint on account of the harsh law of debt, which provided that a debtor or his family could be sold for the benefit of the creditor. The hardships of military service, and bad crops, brought many poor men into debt, when it clearly was only their misfortune and not their fault. Yet the nobles upheld the bad law, and threatened to reduce a great part of the people to slavery. An ambitious nobleman, named *Cylon*, made use of the popular discontent in an attempt to overthrow the aristocracy. From his father-in-law, who was tyrant over a neighbouring state, he got a band of soldiers, and with them seized the Acropolis. (*Acros* = high; *polis* = city: name of a fortified hill in the middle of Athens.) Cylon might have succeeded, had he won the favor of the populace. But he did not consider it worth while to please the masses, aiming only at power for himself. When the archons besieged Cylon on the Acropolis, the people did not lift a finger to help him, and he had to flee for his life. His friends were put to death, in spite of a promise to respect their lives. This happened about 630 B.C.

The Code of Draco (621 B.C.).—This breach of promise and the execution of the conspirators cast much discredit on the government. It weakened the position of the nobles, so that they were obliged to yield to some of the popular demands for reform. Arbitrary legal decisions were stopped by the writing

and publication of laws. The task of drawing up the code was performed by the archon *Draco*. His code, however, did little to better the condition of the people. The law of debt remained unchanged, and many other laws were so severe, that later Athenians referred to the code as having been written with blood rather than with ink. Since then severe laws are often called 'Draconian.'

Solon.—The contrast between rich and poor steadily grew sharper, and the bitterness of the people more dangerous; until a bloody revolution was imminent. To avert the danger, the nobles asked the wisest man of their number to make a thorough reform of the laws, and of the constitution of the state. The right man for the crisis was found in *Solon*, who has ever since been regarded as the founder of the new Athens, and as one of the great sages of Greece. About his personality little is known. He was of noble birth, and had distinguished himself as a warrior and poet. His patriotism had won the confidence of all parties.

Abolished the Harsh Laws of Debt.—Solon's first care was to relieve the lower classes of their unjust burdens by cancelling all outstanding debts. Furthermore, he ordered that debtors should no longer be sold as slaves by their creditors.

Constitutional Reforms (594 B.C.)—Solon made *land* the basis of political rights. He divided the population of Attica into *four classes*, according to their income in corn, oil, or wine. The first class had annual crops amounting to at least five hundred measures of grain. In the second place came the

three hundred bushel¹ men, in the third the two hundred. All those having still smaller incomes fell under the fourth class, called *thetes*.

Only members of the first class, who also belonged to the nobility, were eligible to the archonships. Minor offices could be held by any one of the first three classes. The magistrates were elected by a *Popular Assembly*, in which every citizen, including the *thetes*, had a vote. This assembly could also pass new laws, though it was not allowed to originate them. It could only decide on business which had first been prepared in the *Senate of Four Hundred*, a body which was elected annually from among the three higher classes. Solon retained the *Areopagus* as a board for the general supervision of the government. It watched over the behaviour of magistrates, and had an oversight over the morals of the citizens. The nobles could have been well satisfied with Solon's constitution, because the archonships and the areopagus remained wholly in their hands. The lowest class, on the other hand, no longer needed to fear oppression, because every citizen could vote in the assembly. To protect the common people from partisan judgments, Solon also made a new law court, called the *Heliæa*, to which citizens from *all classes* were chosen annually as judges. Any man who thought that the archons had judged his case unjustly could appeal to this popular court.

Tyranny at Athens (560-511 B.C.).—Although Solon had done his best to please all parties, discontent did

¹ Bushel, an English measure of corn. The Greek measure had a different name, of course.

not stop. The nobles longed for their former power, and the lower classes wished to get still more rights. The quarrel reached almost the stage of civil war. A young noble, nephew of Solon, by the name of *Pisistratus*, placed himself at the head of the people's party. Through their aid he gained control of the government, and made himself absolute ruler. The nobles drove him out twice, but he finally established his power so firmly that he could later transmit it to his sons, *Hippias* and *Hipparchus*.

Pisistratus did not abolish the Solonian constitution. He only took care that all the high magistrates were always chosen from among his relatives or friends. His rule was mild and just, and brought prosperity to Athens. His sons followed his example, until Hipparchus was murdered by a young nobleman, whose sister the tyrant had insulted. Hippias was now filled with suspicion and fear for his own life. He put many citizens to death, and roused the indignation of the Athenians by his hard rule. In the rebellion which naturally soon followed, Hippias succeeded in escaping to Asia Minor, where he settled as a dependent of the Persian king.

The Reforms of Cleisthenes (509 B.C.).—The fall of the tyranny was the signal for renewed civil strife.² Aristocracy and democracy each fought for the upper hand. The people got an able leader in *Cleisthenes*,³ a noble who drove the aristocratic faction out of the city. He then carried out a number of reforms, which increased the power of the people still further. The changes which Cleisthenes made in the constitution were based on the work of Solon. Only members

of the first property class could become archons, but they no longer needed to be of noble birth.

The Senate was increased in membership to five hundred, fifty elected annually from each of the ten tribes into which Attica was now divided.

The most radical step taken by Cleisthenes was giving the franchise (right to vote) to all free citizens of Attica, including many who had recently been slaves. The membership of the Public Assembly was thereby so much increased that this body became the strongest part of the government. The *Ecclesia*—so the assembly was called—dealt with every kind of public business. It elected magistrates, and judged them at the end of their term of office. It controlled taxation and government expenditure, decided on war or peace, and concluded treaties or alliances with other states. Any citizen could mount the speaker's platform and address the assembly. Hence public oratory was developed to a high point of excellence. Bad speakers were hissed down by the hearers, while favourite orators exercised great influence. The Athenians soon grew very proud of their right of *free speech*, which they considered the best gift of political freedom.

The powers of the *Heliaca*, the popular court organized by Solon, were largely increased. To prevent bribery of the judges, an intricate system of selecting them shortly before the trial was devised.

Ostracism.—Cleisthenes had himself been a witness of the tyranny of Pisistratus and Hippias; he had also learned the dangers of civil war. To ensure the young democracy against these two dangers, he introduced a curious safeguard, the so-called *Ostracism*. If any one statesman grew so powerful as to threaten the constitution, or if two party leaders endangered the public peace by their disagreement, then the dangerous man could be removed by banish-

ment. Six thousand votes cast against one name meant a decree of honourable exile for ten years. The votes were secret, and were written on pieces of shell. (In Greek, *ostrakon* = shell, hence the name.) No disgrace was attached to ostracism: on the contrary, it was a recognition that the person ostracized enjoyed the highest political standing. On their return from exile several statesmen immediately assumed the leadership in public affairs. This method of settling party strife remained in use for nearly a century, but was not often called for.

The institutions of Cleisthenes had a stimulating effect on the growth and progress of Athens. The citizens took great pride in their state. Under the influence of liberty and justice, which gave an equal chance for advancement to all, every kind of work and enterprise flourished. The Spartans were jealous of the prosperity of their rival, and even led a large army against Athens, with the intention of overthrowing the democracy. The Athenians seemed lost before their superior enemies. Luckily the allies of Sparta got angry about the injustice of the attack, and obliged the Spartans to retreat without fighting.

CHAPTER VII

THE PERSIAN WARS AND THE AGE OF PERICLES

Events Leading up to the Persian Wars.—In the chapter on Persian history it has been told how Darius I. led an expedition into Southern Russia, and how one of his generals annexed a considerable part of the Balkan peninsula to the Persian empire. The conquest of Lydia had already made Persian subjects of the Greeks living in the coast cities of Asia Minor. It seemed to depend only on the pleasure of the Great King whether Greece proper should also be added to his vast dominions. His armies had hitherto proved invincible, and his financial resources were practically unlimited. That the little Greek states would be able to offer any effective resistance against Persian attack seemed impossible.

Revolt of the Asiatic Greeks; Submission of Macedonia.—In the year 500 B.C. the Greeks of Asia Minor tried by a sudden revolt to shake off the Persian yoke. Athens sent help to her sister cities, and their joint forces burned Sardis, the residence of the Western Satrap. Darius I. at once punished the rebels, and restored order in Asia Minor. He

also determined to revenge the insult offered by the Athenians. He sent the general *Mardonius* with a large army and a fleet to conquer Greece, and to destroy Athens. Mardonius received the submission of *Macedonia*, a kingdom extending to the northern boundary of Greece. But his further progress was stopped by a storm, which destroyed the fleet when it tried to pass the dangerous promontory of *Mount Athos*. ✓

Second Expedition.—A few years later, in 490 B.C., Darius commanded two of his best generals to carry out the punishment he had sworn to inflict on Athens. Led by Hippias, the exiled tyrant, they sailed across the *Aegæan* in an immense fleet, bearing over 100,000 soldiers. After conquering several islands they landed near *Marathon*, on the east coast of *Attica*.

Athens had a force of 10,000 men to oppose to the enemy. The Spartans promised aid, but delayed on account of some religious ceremonies. Only the citizens of *Plataea*, a little town of southern Boeotia, proved their courage and their friendship for Athens by coming in full force, 1000 men strong, to share the dangers of the Persian attack.

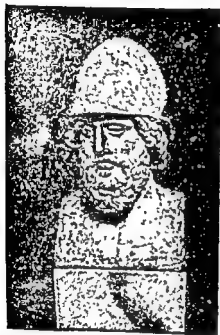
Battle of Marathon (490 B.C.).—The Athenians and Plataeans took their position on a range of hills overlooking the plain of Marathon. For over a week neither side wished to attack. At last a favourable chance came for the Greeks. The Persians were in disorder, embarking part of their soldiers on the ships, when the Athenian commander, *Miltiades*, gave the order to advance at a run. The

of Marathon was a very small affair. For the Athenians it meant a wonderful victory in a sudden struggle for their very existence. The Persians considered it as a little reverse, for which they hoped to make up by and by. Later historians, who can estimate what the battle of Marathon means for Western civilization as a whole, count it among the decisive battles of the world. A Persian victory would have ended Athenian freedom. The advances made by Athens in so many fields of learning and art, could not have been made under the arbitrary rule of a Persian satrap. A defeat, therefore, would have dwarfed or even ended the development of Greek culture, and so would have robbed later ages of some of the finest elements in their civilization.

The Fame and Sudden Fall of Miltiades.—*Miltiades*, whose advice had secured the victory, became at once the most famous man in Greece. The Athenians praised him to the sky as the greatest hero who had ever lived. Their confidence in the saviour of the country was unbounded. But the glory of Miltiades was cut short in a shameful way. His sudden elevation completely turned his head. He asked the Ecclesia to grant him the use of a fleet and army for a secret expedition, which would bring great profit to Athens. When the people granted the command, he employed the armament for an attack on one of the Greek island cities, against which he had a private grudge. The expedition failed completely, and Miltiades sailed back to Athens severely wounded and as a disgraced man, a traitor to the trust of his people. He was barely saved from being condemned to death before the Heliaea. Shortly afterwards he died of his wound.

Expansion of the Athenian Navy.—After the battle of Marathon most Athenians believed that the Persians would not attack them a second time. There was one statesman, however, who felt sure that Darius would take a terrible revenge for the

defeat. This was *Themistocles*, a clever politician and ardent patriot, a man whose genius marked him above all others of his time. He urged the Athenians to prepare with all their might for the coming conflict. Above all he wanted them to build a strong navy. This essential part of his



THEMISTOCLES.

policy was opposed by *Aristides*, the leader of the conservative party. He and his supporters wished to keep Athens a land power. They were all land owners, and feared to lose political influence by the growth of the navy, which was manned largely by thetes. As the two policies could in no way be reconciled, ostracism was called for, to decide between the two opponents. The vote went against *Aris-*

tides, and *Themistocles* remained sole leader of Athenian affairs. By his advice the harbour of *Piræus* was strongly fortified, while the navy was completely remodelled, and soon raised to the first rank in Greece.

The Persians prepare a Third Expedition against Greece.—*Darius* prepared to wipe out the disgrace of *Marathon* by an immense expedition, which he

himself meant to lead into Greece. His plan was cut short by his death. His son Xerxes, though personally timid and indolent, yielded to the advice of his counsellors, who promised him great glory from the campaign. He gave orders to collect the largest army ever gathered by an Eastern monarch. Soldiers from all parts of the vast empire marched to Sardis, where the army assembled. Negroes, Egyptians, Indians, and many other races and tribes swelled the forces to over a million men. The gathering was brilliant and interesting, but it was not an army in the proper sense of that term. The soldiers spoke many languages, and carried many different kinds of weapons. Hence the various parts of the army could not co-operate properly, and confusion reigned instead of order. The provisioning of such an immense host also caused great trouble. Stores of food were collected in advance along the intended route of invasion.

A fleet of over 1300 vessels was supplied by the Phoenicians and by the Greek cities of Asia Minor. Phoenician architects also were commanded to build two pontoon bridges across the Hellespont. Xerxes remembered the destruction of Mardonius' fleet at Mount Athos. To avoid the dangerous cape, he had a ship canal dug across the lowest part of the peninsula back of it.

Plans of the Greeks—The selfishness of the Greek states was more dangerous to them than the hosts of the Great King. In spite of the terrible danger they did not combine for a united defence of the country. A few of the cities openly preferred sub-

mission to the risk of destruction. Before opening the campaign, Xerxes sent envoys to Greece, to demand earth and water, the symbols of submission to Persian rule. The Athenians and Spartans killed the envoys by throwing them into pits and wells, saying, "Help yourselves to earth and water." After this insult, no mercy could be expected from Xerxes.

Themistocles called a congress of the Greek states at Corinth, to discuss measures of defence. Most of the cities of Hellas, except those already under Persian rule, were represented at this gathering. The deliberations proved clearly how little national patriotism the Greeks possessed. Thebes preferred the Persian yoke, out of hatred for Athens. In some other states the aristocratic party urged submission, because the Persian king would suppress all democratic governments.

Sparta and most of her Peloponnesian confederates were for armed resistance, but they also thought more of their own safety, than of the liberty of all Greece. They wished to fortify the Isthmus of Corinth, and there defy the Persian army, leaving all northern and central Greece to the mercy of the invaders. The Athenians ably pointed out the folly of this plan. They said that all the states north of the Isthmus would thus be forced to submit, and their soldiers would at once be lost for the defence.

Battle of Thermopylae (480 B.C.).—The delegates finally decided to make a stand at the pass of *Thermopylae*. (*Thermos*=hot, as in thermometer; *pylae*=gates; named from some hot springs near the pass.) Here was a narrow road between the Malian gulf

and a steep spur of the mountains, which afforded the only good passage from northern into central Greece. A force of 6000 heavy armed infantry, commanded by the Spartan king *Leonidas*, was at once entrusted with the defence of this pass.

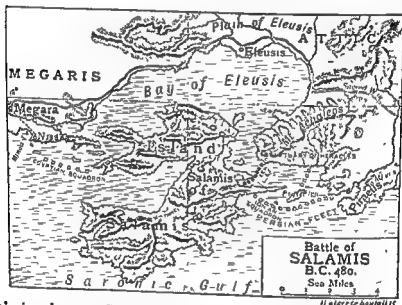
Leonidas easily held his own against the Persian host. It already seemed as though Xerxes would have to end his southward march at Thermopylae, when a Greek traitor offered for gold to show a secret pass across the mountains. Over this by-way Xerxes sent some of his picked men during the night, and next morning their advance guard appeared in the rear of the pass. Leonidas at once ordered the bulk of his little army to retreat. He himself, with three hundred Spartan citizens, chose death in the pass. Their honour as Spartans demanded that they should obey to the last the order to defend the position.

The heroism of Leonidas and his little band made a deep impression on the Persians. Such devotion to duty and such bravery had never been encountered by them. Many of their own soldiers had been driven into the battle with whips. The troops of Xerxes hereafter regarded the Greeks as superior to themselves, and began to be afraid of them. Thus the heroic death of the Spartans helped the Greeks to win the succeeding battles of the war.

Battle of Salamis (480 B.C.).—The Persian army met with no further resistance in central Greece. The people of Attica deserted their country. The old men, women, and children were taken across to the Peloponnesus, while the fighting men took to the

ships. Xerxes ordered Athens to be totally destroyed, in revenge for the attack on Sardis twenty years before.

The whole Greek fleet was assembled at the Island of Salamis, not far from the Piræus. Even now, after most of Greece had fallen a prey to the enemy, the generals from different states still quarrelled about



their plans. *Themistocles*, however, saved the Greeks from destruction, by bringing on a naval encounter with the Persians. At night he sent a secret messenger to Xerxes, telling him that the Greek fleet would disperse next day, and that by a sudden attack early in the morning he could destroy the whole Greek naval power at one blow. Xerxes followed this advice. On a hill near Athens overlooking the sea, he sat on a throne, surrounded by all his court, to watch the downfall of Greece.

His high hopes were broken by the most 'spectacular defeat recorded in history. The Great King helplessly looked down from his throne, while the Greek sailors and soldiers destroyed nearly half of his fleet. The rest fled in confusion from the scene of battle.

Even then the remaining Persian ships still outnumbered those of Greece. But Xerxes had lost all courage, and retreated hastily to the safety of his Asiatic dominions. He left the veteran General *Mardonius*, with the flower of the Persian army, to complete the conquest of Greece.

Fourth Expedition of the Persians against Greece; Battle of Plataea (479 B.C.).—When Mardonius marched south in the following spring, the Spartans again thought only of their own safety. They allowed Athens to be destroyed a second time. Mardonius had promised to make Athens the leading state in Greece, if she would acknowledge the Persian sovereignty. The Athenians threatened to accept this offer, if the Peloponnesians would not aid them against Mardonius. This threat at last overcame the Spartan selfishness. A large army of Peloponnesians, commanded by the Spartan king *Pausanias*, joined the Athenians. In the battle of *Plataea* Mardonius fell, and nearly his whole army was put to the sword. After this crushing defeat no Persian army ever set foot in Greece again.

The Greeks take the Offensive against the Persians.—In the same year a Greek fleet sailed to Asia Minor and destroyed a large Persian fleet near the promontory of *Mycale*. This was the first victory

in the offensive war which the Greeks, led by Athens, kept up against Persia for the next forty years. The Persian king lost all his European territory, and had to give up his sovereignty over the Greek cities of Asia Minor.

Disgrace of Pausanias and Themistocles.—At first Pausanias was chief general in the attacks on Persia. He had commanded at Plataea, and since then regarded himself as the greatest man on earth. His behaviour towards other people grew arrogant and insolent. Driven by his foolish ambition, he corresponded with the Persian king, by whose help he wished to become tyrant of all Greece. One of his messengers denounced him to the Spartan government, and he was put to death as a traitor. The letter of Pausanias also cast a suspicion of treason on the Athenian Themistocles. Themistocles had long been known as a very unscrupulous person. He gave and received bribes, and abused his political influence for his private gain. But his extraordinary ability as a politician was of great service to Athens. After the defeat of Mardonius the Spartans wanted to prevent the Athenians from building a wall round the city. Sparta's whole pride lay in her military pre-eminence, and she feared that Athens might grow too strong. Themistocles by a clever lie deceived the Spartans, so that the wall could be finished, and Athens was saved from any further interference. Fortunately for Themistocles, he had recently been ostracised, when the charges against him reached Athens. He was condemned to death, but escaped to Persia. The Persian king received him as a friend, and gave him the revenues of three cities for life.

Aristides the Just.—Political morality was at a low level among the Greeks. The lives of Pausanias and Themistocles afford only prominent examples of a spirit which had many followers. It is pleasant, therefore, to record the name of one statesman who was famous for his honesty and justice.

Aristides, long the rival of Themistocles, now became the leader in Athenian affairs. His reputation for fairness and incorruptibility was of the greatest value to his mother city. He won confidence everywhere, and so made the states look to Athens as their natural leader.

The Delian Confederacy.—A few years after the battle of Mycale most of the Greek states around the Aegæan formed a confederacy, for the purpose of attacking the Persians more methodically and vigorously. Athens was the political head of the league. The meeting place and the treasury were established on the sacred island of *Delos*, after which the confederacy was named. The smaller states made annual contributions in money, while the larger ones furnished ships. *Aristides* was chosen to determine what share of money or ships each state should give.

The Delian Confederacy becomes an Athenian Empire.—After some years many confederates who had given ships preferred to give money, like the smaller states, letting Athens build the ships. Presently the Athenians transferred the treasury from *Delos* to Athens, on the plea that the funds would be safer under their immediate care. But they used much of the money for raising fine buildings in their own city, instead of devoting all to the war against Persia. The allies complained that Athens was robbing them, and many declared that they would leave the confederacy and make no further payments. Thereupon the Athenians sent their strong fleet against them, punished them severely, and forced them to pay

increased contributions. In this manner the formerly free members of the Delian league became tributaries of Athens, and the league itself was changed into an Athenian maritime empire.

Sparta after the Persian Wars.—The Spartan government had grown still more aristocratic since the early times of Lycurgus. There had long existed, beside the Senate of Elders and the two kings, five officers called overseers or *Ephors*. These Ephors gradually increased their power, until they controlled the whole government, and even the kings had to obey their commands. Thus the development of the Spartan constitution was just the reverse of what took place at Athens.

To the dislike of the Ephors against the Athenian democracy was added an ever-increasing jealousy. Sparta still enjoyed her reputation as the leading land power in Greece, but Athens now stood without a rival at the head of maritime Hellas, and also extended her power by land in central Greece. A number of Boeotian cities expelled the aristocrats, set up democracies, and joined the Athenian alliance. Alarmed at the progress of Athenian power, the Spartans joined the Thebans in a war against Athens, which lasted over ten years. At last the Athenians were beaten, and had to give up all further hope of acquiring dominion on land. Thebes again took her old place as the leading state in Boeotia, and re-established aristocratic governments in the neighbouring cities.

The Age of Pericles—In Athenian history the time between the Persian invasions and the Peloponnesian

war is generally called the *Age of Pericles*, after the great statesman who then took the lead in Athenian affairs.

Pericles came of a noble Athenian family, many members of which had already won distinction. He had the very best education, and continued always to perfect himself in the knowledge and the arts which are helpful to a statesman. As an orator he easily stood first in his time. He was also a good general and a far-sighted politician. With his natural gifts he combined a true love for his city, untiring energy, and a lofty view of his duties. He never stooped to low intrigue; nor did he attempt to benefit himself or to hurt his private enemies by his influence.



PERICLES.

For more than a generation Pericles was the uncrowned ruler of Athens. Yet he never was elected archon. He held the office of general¹ for his tribe, and sometimes was elected to some minor positions. His power depended entirely on his influence over the people in the Ecclesia. The Athenians admired and respected him for his noble character, and followed his advice, because they

¹ Each of the ten tribes of Attica annually elected a general.

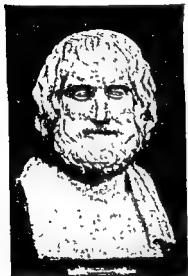
recognized that he was the wisest man among them. Never in any country has there been a more inspiring ruler than Pericles: king of men without force or hereditary right, but only through the unchanging greatness of his personality.

Pericles wished to make the democracy of Athens as perfect a government as possible. He knew that a good education of all the citizens is the foundation of a popular government. Beside the debates in the *Ecclesia*, and the legal discussions in the *Heliaca*, the *theatres* were the principal schools for the grown-up Athenians. The plays performed there dealt mostly with Greek history, or with problems in morals and religion. Their authors were the most famous writers of the day. Indeed, the plays of *Euripides* and others still rank among the finest works of literature. For these performances Pericles gave free tickets to the people. In order that poor citizens could also take part in public affairs, he paid them for their attendance at the *Ecclesia*, and paid them for performing public duties. Pericles also gave festivals to the people at public expense, because he wanted all citizens to have the same chance of enjoying themselves, just as they all shared the same duties of government, and the same dangers in war.

If the condition of a society can be rightly estimated by the number of great men produced in it, then Athens in the Periclean age must be called the most highly civilized community in the world's history. Never before or since then has so much genius been gathered at one place within such a short period. In the long list of famous names we find the sculptor

Phidias, the historian *Herodotus*, the philosopher *Socrates*. Most of these great men were personal friends of Pericles, and owed much to his advice.

Pericles proved the power and glory of his city to the world by erecting costly and beautiful public buildings. The Acropolis was covered with splendid temples. Here was built the *Parthenon*, or temple ✓



EURIPIDES.



HERODOTUS.

to the goddess Athena, a majestic structure of white marble. In the Parthenon Phidias made a colossal statue of Athena out of gold and ivory. Many parts of the temple were decorated with marble statuary by Phidias and his pupils. Some of their work is still preserved, and is studied by modern artists as the most excellent of its kind.

The age of Pericles was the golden time of Athens. But the glory of that wonderful city was just as short-lived as it was brilliant. The weaknesses of the

petitor. The *Thebans* had always hated Athens, and gladly took every opportunity to damage her. Athens also counted many enemies among the subject states of the Delian Confederacy, who were eager to break away from their bondage.

The war was precipitated by a quarrel between Athens and Corinth, in which the latter was worsted. The Corinthians then complained to the Spartans, and the Spartan assembly, backed by all the states of the Peloponnesus, declared for war.

Power of Athens and Sparta compared.—Athens was well protected behind strong walls, which extended down to the sea, and embraced the fortified harbour of Piræus. Her navy was irresistible. Beside her numerous subjects of the Delian confederacy, she had a number of strong allies. Of the inland states, *Plataea* especially was her firm friend. More valuable than many ships and soldiers was the wise guidance of *Pericles*.

Sparta had at her disposal the overwhelming land forces of the Peloponnesus, against which the Athenian army could not dare to take the field. The Thebans were valuable allies, because they constantly threatened Attica from the north. Corinth furnished the greater part of the Peloponnesian fleet. Altogether, the opponents were evenly matched, Athens having just as great an advantage at sea as Sparta had on land.

The Peloponnesian War to the Peace of Nicias (431-421 B.C.).—During the first five years of the war the Peloponnesians annually invaded Attica, ravaging the fields and destroying the villages right up to the walls

of Athens. At the advice of Pericles the Athenians did not risk a decisive battle against the superior land forces of the enemy. They retaliated by landing on the Peloponnesus and destroying all property within easy reach of the coast. More dreadful for Athens than the Spartan attacks was a *plague*, which killed a great part of the population, including Pericles, 429 B.C. The loss of his calm guidance was the severest blow which could befall Athens.

The constant warfare hardened the hearts of the opponents, and led them to cruel reprisals. The Spartans took Plataea after a long siege, in which the defenders fought with desperate valour. The city was razed to the ground, and the whole garrison put to death. When the Spartan generals captured a ship of the enemy, they always threw the whole crew overboard. The Athenians were equally relentless in their punishment of *Mytilene*, the leading city on the island of *Lesbos*, which had revolted from the Delian league. At the instigation of *Cleon*, the Ecclesia voted to kill all Mytilenean men, and to sell the women and children as slaves. Next day the counsels of more prudent men induced the Ecclesia to repeal the bloody sentence: a swift ship was despatched with orders to execute only the aristocrats, more than a thousand in number.

After ten years of fighting neither side had gained any decided advantage. In 421 B.C. the Athenian *Nicias* was able to conclude a peace for fifty years. The conditions of the treaty, however, were not strictly observed by either side, and within three years the war broke out afresh.

democracy, which were still held under control by Pericles, brought about its swift ruin after his death. In one way that great statesman had himself planted the seed of destruction. It was a fatal mistake to provide free feasts for the people. They soon became idle and luxurious, and began to despise manual labour. Common men, who had little judgment and were easily led astray by bad counsellors, henceforth formed the majority of the Public Assembly. The government became unsteady, and engaged in some reckless enterprises, which finally led to its downfall. How this came about will be told in the following chapter.

CHAPTER VIII

THE MUTUAL DESTRUCTION OF THE GREEK STATES, AND THEIR CONQUEST BY PHILIP OF MACEDON. ✓

Causes of the Peloponnesian War.—The political rivalry between Athens and Sparta led to the famous struggle known as the *Peloponnesian War*, which lasted from 431-404 B.C. The underlying cause for this war has already been mentioned; it was the inability of the Greeks to look beyond the interests of each individual state, and to form a national union. The need for some kind of political union led to the system of leaderships, called *hegemones* by the Greeks. Smaller states formed alliances with some strong state, which they regarded as their political leader. Thus Thebes had the hegemony in Boeotia, Sparta in the Peloponnesus, Athens over the island states. Sparta and Athens both aspired to the hegemony of all Greece, and this alone was enough cause for war. Another bitter enemy of Athens was *Corinth*, once the leading maritime power of Greece. The growth of Athenian trade had been largely at the expense of the Corinthians, who saw themselves losing in wealth and influence through the gains of their proud com-

Decline of the Athenian Democracy.—The affair of Mytilene shows how rash and fickle the Athenian people became, after they lost their great leader Pericles. He had always restrained them from sudden bursts of anger or recklessness, and encouraged them in times of depression. None of his successors had the powerful personality needed for such a control of the multitude. Most of them rather sought public favour by proposing such measures as would at the moment please the people. At the same time they placed their personal advancement above the welfare of the state. To them it was an advantage that the lower classes formed the majority of the assembly, because the ignorant masses are led by blind passion or enthusiasm rather than by calm reason. The democracy thus degenerated to a *mob rule* under the direction of *demagogues* (*dem*=people, *agogues*=leaders, in a bad sense). The first of these demagogues was *Cleon*, the author of the cruel decree against Mytilene. He and others of his kind also reversed the careful policy of Pericles, which would have brought victory to Athens. They encouraged the people to engage in distant and dangerous enterprises, where success was quite uncertain. A few conservative statesmen, of whom Nicias was the most prominent, were unable to correct the follies of the mob.

Alcibiades.—The renewal of the war, after the peace of Nicias, was brought about by *Alcibiades*, a young and wealthy nobleman, who had great influence over the Athenian people. Alcibiades had all the qualities needed to dazzle the common masses. Of body

strong and beautiful, he was of brilliant mind, full of courage and enthusiasm, and gifted with a charming eloquence, which captivated his listeners. But he was also dissolute, had no respect for tradition or authority, and knew no limits for his personal ambition. He could not be depended upon in times of public danger, because he could not depend upon himself. His wild disposition led him into tricks of which only a bad schoolboy or a madman could have been guilty in any other country, or at any other time. One day, for example, he made a bet that he would strike one of the most prominent citizens in the open street. He actually struck the gentleman and won his bet; but next day he offered to have himself beaten as punishment for the insult. It is hard to understand why the Athenians put any trust in such a fickle person. The briefest explanation is this: his excellences and his vices were shared in lesser degree by the people themselves. If Alcibiades changed his mind from one day to the next, that seemed no dreadful fault to the assembled people, who changed their opinions with the same swiftness. All men are more likely to forgive in others the faults which they themselves possess. An Athenian writer well summed up the relation between Alcibiades and the people when he said: "They detest him, need him, and cannot do without him."

The Sicilian Expedition (415-413 B.C.).—The ascendancy of Alcibiades soon brought the misfortunes, of which moderate statesmen warned the Athenians. He promised the people that he would conquer Sicily and Southern Italy, and would thus lay the founda-

tions of a great Athenian empire. With the forces so acquired, Athens could later easily crush Sparta, and rule as queen over all Hellas. Nicias tried in vain to convince the people that instead of the glories painted by Alcibiades they might more likely meet shame and ruin. The light-hearted enthusiasm of the younger statesman overcame all anxious doubts. A large fleet and army was voted for the expedition, and Nicias and Alcibiades, with a third colleague, were put in command.

Misfortune attended the enterprise from the very start. Alcibiades was accused of a crime against religion by his enemies, and was recalled to Athens for his trial. The Athenian generals lost precious time in smaller enterprises, instead of attacking Syracuse, the strongest of the Sicilian cities, at once. Meanwhile the Syracusans prepared for vigorous resistance. When Nicias at last began the attack, he was unable to take the city. A Spartan general, *Gylippus*, organized the defence so skilfully, that Nicias ran danger of being defeated, and had to ask for strong reinforcements from Athens. Nearly the whole of the Athenian fighting force, two hundred war ships and about 40,000 men, now lay before Syracuse. Not a ship and hardly a man escaped from terrible disaster. After several defeats, the remnant of the fleet found itself caught in the harbour of Syracuse, the mouth of which was blocked by the defenders. The army sought safety in a retreat across the island. But the march into the enemy's country, without food and drink, was merely a measure of despair. Many soldiers gave up all hope, marched without

aim or order, and made hardly any resistance against their pursuers. At the ford over the *Asinarus* river the miserable fugitives were cut to pieces by the Syracusans. Nicias was executed, and the other survivors were kept as slaves.

Alcibiades turns Traitor.—When Alcibiades was conducted back to Athens, he knew that he might be condemned before the court. Whether he was guilty or not of the crimes charged against him, is uncertain. To the Athenians his guilt was proved by his flight on the way. They at once condemned him to death. Alcibiades, in turn, set himself up as judge of his whole country, and punished Athens for having treated him so ungratefully. It was he who advised the Spartans to send Gylippus to Syracuse. And since the generalship of Gylippus brought victory, Alcibiades may indirectly be considered as the destroyer of the Sicilian expedition. He also urged the Spartans to fortify a place called *Deceleia* in Attica, whence they could control the Attic plain, and hold Athens in permanent blockade from the land side. The Spartans followed this advice. For the next nine years no Athenian was safe in his own country outside the city walls. The last part of the Peloponnesian war is therefore called the Deceleian war. Alcibiades also pointed out how advantageous an alliance with Persia would be to the Spartan cause. By a shameful treaty with the satrap *Tissaphernes*, the Spartans allowed the Persians to reoccupy all the Greek coast cities of Asia Minor. Tissaphernes, in turn, furnished money and ships against Athens.

Heroic Struggle of the Athenians; Recall of Alcibiades.—At the height of their distress, the Athenians displayed heroic courage. By special taxation and unresting work they launched within a year a new navy, with which they inflicted several defeats on the combined forces of the Peloponnesians and Persians. Alcibiades, tired of the dull life among the Spartans, strove to bring about his recall to Athens by some signal service for the cause of his mother city. He persuaded Tissaphernes to desert the Spartans, and lend his support to the Athenians. The argument by which Alcibiades induced the Lydian satrap to change sides, shows how well the former understood the deplorable condition of Greece. By preventing the total defeat of Athens he would prolong the war until all Greece would be completely exhausted. Then Persia could have a free hand on the whole Asiatic coast. Tissaphernes followed the advice, with the result that the Athenian troops gained another advantage. Out of gratitude they actually made Alcibiades general, and he soon was able to drive the Peloponnesians from the northern Aegæan. For a while all his crimes were forgotten: he was again the idol of his people. But the triumph was of short duration. During the next campaign Alcibiades left an inexperienced friend in charge of the fleet, while he went to carry on negotiations with Tissaphernes. The temporary commander was badly defeated, and his chief was again exiled in consequence. Alcibiades found his last refuge among the Persians, a fugitive from Athenian justice as well as from Spartan hatred.

Close of the Peloponnesian War.—The Athenians persevered in the struggle to the bitter end. At last, in 404 B.C., their fleet was surprised and annihilated by the Spartan commander. All prisoners were killed and left unburied. Athens had to surrender after a close siege. The proud citizens were forced to demolish their own walls, while the Spartans played festive music. Some of the allies demanded that the city should be razed level with the ground, but the Spartans would not allow that. They were afraid lest Corinth or Thebes might get too strong, if they were not counterbalanced by Athens.

Spartan Domination.—All through the war, Sparta had posed as the defender of Hellenic liberty against Athenian oppression. The event proved how hypocritical the Spartan pretensions were. The ephors sent Spartan governors into all the conquered cities, who ruled arbitrarily, treating the people much worse than the Athenians had ever done. In Athens itself they established an oligarchy, known as the government of the *Thirty Tyrants*. After a year of misrule, the citizens rose in revolt, and put the tyrants to death. Democracy was re-established somewhat as it had been under Cleisthenes. In other cities the hatred against the Spartan governors soon reached such a pitch, that an alliance was formed to drive them out. Thebes and Corinth, the leaders, were joined by their former arch-enemy Athens in the war against Spartan domination. The Persian Satraps

The long walls from the city to the Piræaus were rebuilt with Persian money, and the city recovered much of its former prosperity. But the glorious days of Themistocles and Pericles were gone for ever.

Hegemony of Thebes (371-362 B.C.).—In 379 B.C. a new war broke out between Thebes and Sparta. With an insolent disregard of the rights of their neighbours, the Spartans had suddenly thrown a strong garrison into Thebes, expelled the democrats, and set up an oligarchy. For four years the Thebans bore the insult with seeming meekness. But one night the Spartan oligarchs were murdered by conspirators, who entered their house disguised as women. The garrison was surrounded by superior forces, and had to lay down its arms.

When a large Spartan army invaded Boeotia, it was defeated by half the number of Thebans at Leuctra, in 371 B.C. By this victory the Thebans grew famous as the most skilful soldiers in the world. They owed their sudden good fortune entirely to two men, *Epaminondas* and *Pelopidas*. Pelopidas was a fine general and intrepid fighter. He had personally killed the chief of the Spartan oligarchs in Thebes. He organized a corps of young patriots, called the *Sacred Band*, who were all pledged to lay down their lives for their country.

In Epaminondas Greece produced one of her most admirable sons. In the field he was eminent as a strategist, that is, a general who understands how to dispose his troops, and to take the best advantage of the ground. He invented a new order of attack,

which made his troops invincible. He was also a learned scholar, an eloquent orator, and a wise statesman. Under his lead Thebes humbled Sparta to the dust by invading the Peloponnesus four times, and driving the Lacedaemonians within their town. The hegemony of Thebes was not stained by cruelty or arrogance. Epaminondas was the only Greek statesman who considered the welfare of other cities as well as the glory of his own. Unfortunately his career came too late in Greek history, and was too short to confer any lasting benefit on the country. He died from a spear thrust on the battle-field, in 362, and with him departed the power of Thebes.

Rise of the Macedonian Power.—While the Greek states were engaged in their wars of mutual destruction, a new power rose to the north of them, which soon was to benefit from their dissensions. The *Macedonians* were a sturdy race of shepherds and farmers, closely related to the Greeks. They had no appreciable share in Greek history until the reign of king *Philip*. This ruler had spent three years of his youth in Thebes as a hostage, and had there learned military science and statecraft from Epaminondas. His natural ability as a soldier and politician amounted to genius. He improved on the lessons learned from Epaminondas, and created a new kind of fighting order, called the *phalanx*. This was an infantry formation marching sixteen rows deep, armed with long spears, which presented an impenetrable front of spear points to the enemy. The phalanx proved invincible until it met the Roman legions, over a century later. Philip extended the boundaries

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of Macedonia by conquest, and advanced the welfare of his people by introducing Greek education and opening new seaports.

Demosthenes.—When Philip had consolidated his power in the north, he naturally designed to extend his rule southward over Greece. Some of the lesser states offered him the best opportunity he could wish for, by asking him to help in a war against *Phocis*. The Phocians had robbed the treasures of the temple at *Delphi*, and were to be punished for this sacrilege. Philip gladly gave his assistance, and as reward for punishing the Phocians he was elected as a guardian of the Delphic temple. This was a position of considerable political weight. By it Philip gained a permanent voice in the inner affairs of Greece.

He now could have made himself master of the country with ease had it not been for the resistance organized by the Athenian orator *Demosthenes*. This remarkable personality, the last of the great Greek patriots, has always been held up as an ideal example for young men. Without having any special gift for oratory, he succeeded through years of patient effort, in making himself a master of that art. Many of his speeches are still preserved, and are studied by scholars of all Western nations as the best models of oratory ever produced. The orations of Demosthenes marked the last noble efforts of Athens to defend her civic liberty against a foreign oppressor. Unhappily there were many men of lower stamp in the city who worked for the interest of Philip. Had all shared the same patriotism, then Macedonia could not have won the hegemony of Greece. In 338 B.C. Demos-

thenes united the Athenians and Thebans together for a decisive battle against Philip. At *Chaeronea*, in Boeotia, the Macedonian phalanx cut through the ranks of the patriots, and Greek independence was ended. After this date Greece was merely a part of the Macedonian empire, and its history was linked with that of its masters.

CHAPTER IX

HELLENIC CIVILIZATION

The Value of Greek Achievements for Later Ages.—The true worth of Greece lies least in her political history. Much can be learned from her experiences in government. Statesmen like Pericles, Aristides, and Demosthenes may serve as models of public conduct. But, as a whole, Greek politics are unpleasant. Their selfishness and their narrow aims serve as a warning rather than as an example for posterity. The failure of the Greeks to build up a nation lay largely in their character. Compared with other races of the West, they were lacking in *morality*. Their sad history, compared with the long duration of the Chinese empire, proves how indispensable the *moral training* of the population is for the welfare of a country.

The real glory of Greece is her intellectual and artistic work. In nearly every form of literary composition, in philosophy, in architecture and sculpture, the Greeks reached the highest point of excellence. Every Western student looks to the Greeks as his teachers. Even some of the most recent scientific theories were expressed by Greek sages more than two thousand years ago. They knew that the earth

is round, that the sun is a globe of fire, and that the moon somewhat resembles the earth. While modern science has gone far ahead of the Greeks, some of their artistic and literary productions have not been equalled.

It is quite impossible in this short work to give any idea of Hellenic culture. Neither is this topic so important for an Eastern student, because the Eastern civilizations have grown up quite independently of Greek influence. But the reader should remember that he will always remain a stranger to many of the best things and ideas of the West so long as he has not learned to understand Hellenic culture.

Greek Religion.—Greek religion was originally a *nature worship*. The sun and the moon, the clouds and winds, the ocean and rivers, were all conceived as persons. Over them all stood the heavens, personified as *Zeus*, the father of gods and men. *Vulcan*¹ was the fire god, hence the term volcano. *Athena* was the goddess of wisdom and industry. She was the special patroness of Athens. *Mars*¹ was the war god, hence the word martial means warlike. The god of light and of prophecy was *Apollo*. His most important temples stood in *Delos*, where the Delian confederacy had its headquarters, and at *Delphi*. All these and other gods were believed to live on Mount *Olympus*. There were thousands of minor local deities, connected with springs, rivers, mountains, and the like.

All deities were conceived in shape like perfect

¹These *Latin* names are given, because they are more familiar than the Greek names *Hephaestus* (=Vulcan) and *Ares* (=Mars). The Greek and Roman deities in these and other instances are very similar, though not identical.

men and women. The Greeks hated anything physically ugly. Mars, for example, was not made by the artists with frightful features like a Chinese war god, but as a very strong and beautifully shaped man. Human character was also attributed to the gods. They had, in fact, all the virtues and vices of the Greeks on a magnified scale.

Among the common people this religion was believed until the spread of Christianity. Educated Greeks soon formed higher religious ideas. The philosopher Socrates, for example, had beliefs which were little different from those of many good men in modern civilized countries.

Places where gods were believed to foretell the future were called *oracles*. The oracle of Apollo at *Delphi* had an immense influence all over Hellas. Even foreign kings and the Roman government sent there for advice. When the priests did not know what answer to give, they made one with a double meaning, which was difficult to understand. Croesus of Lydia, for example, wanted to know from Delphi what would be the result of an attack on Cyrus. He got the oracular reply, that he would destroy a great empire. The answer proved correct, but the empire was Croesus' own.

The Greek Games.—The Greeks put a high value on athletic exercises. Since they enjoyed them so much, they thought that the gods must also take pleasure in them. Therefore they held regular athletic games in honour of the gods. The most celebrated of these contests was held once every four years at *Olympia*, in the Peloponnesus, in honour of

gent women. These attracted the men by their clever conversation. The most famous woman of this class was *Aspasia*, the friend of Pericles, and herself a philosopher of ability. She was really an honourable lady, who might as well have been Pericles' wife.

Greek social organization all rested on *slavery*. In Attica, 400,000 out of the 500,000 souls making up the population were slaves. In Corinth the freemen were only one-tenth of the total population. Athenian slaves were kindly treated. They filled all kinds of positions, including even those of small merchants, bankers, and secretaries. This explains why the freemen could devote so much time to public affairs. Greek government could not exist without slavery. It appeared natural to the Greeks, but is universally condemned now as degrading and pernicious. The remarkable achievements of the few free Greeks were bought by the suppression and suffering of the many slaves.

Making allowances for the above faults, the social life of Athens was the most interesting and elevating which has ever existed. In no other community before or since was education and intelligence so general and of so high an order.

Greek Philosophy and Science.—Of the long list of Greek philosophers only a few can here be named. *Socrates* taught in Athens from the days of Pericles until after the Peloponnesian war. His favourite method was to engage young men in conversation, and to show them in course of talking what were the right ways of regulating one's life. An oft-repeated saying of Socrates is : "*Know Thyself.*"

He meant that we should strive to get an understanding of our place in the world, of our own character, and of our duties. When this saying of Socrates is deeply thought over, it will be found to underlie all progress of human knowledge. Socrates



SOCRATES

held that progress in knowledge and understanding depended on a strict regard for *truth*. He would never tell an untruth, not even for fun or out of politeness. When he was unjustly condemned to death, he could have saved his life by a polite lie to the judges. He preferred to die. His example cannot be too much admired. How much better would this

world be, and how much pleasanter our lives, if more men could only, like Socrates, *speak the truth*. Mutual distrust, for example, would at once disappear.

Plato was a pupil of Socrates. Among other works he has left beautiful writings on friendship and on immortality. *Aristotle* was the most learned of all the



ARCHIMEDES

ancient philosophers. He was the teacher of Alexander the Great. His existing works include treatises on grammar, on logic, on government, on political economy, on natural history, and still other subjects. No man after him, until modern times, studied and knew so much. He remained the undisputed authority on most topics treated by him, for nearly two

thousand years. Two Greek mathematicians have since their time grown familiar to every generation of boys studying geometry and physics. *Euclid* lived in Alexandria, when that Egyptian city was the centre of learning. Geometry, as developed by him, is taught almost unchanged at the present day. *Archimedes* had his home in Syracuse, during the third century B.C. He discovered, among many other principles of geometry and mechanics, the method of determining specific gravity by displacement of water.

. CHAPTER X

ALEXANDER THE GREAT AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

Plans of Conquest in Asia.—In the year 400 B.C. an army of 10,000 mercenary Greek soldiers marched to the Euphrates near Babylon, as part of a Persian rebel army. The leader of the rebellion fell in battle, but the ten thousand were victorious. They found that no Persian army could withstand them, and marched from Babylonia to the Black Sea without meeting any serious resistance. This expedition showed how weak the Persian empire was internally. Many Greeks thought that a disciplined Greek army under a good general could easily conquer a part of the Great King's dominions.

When Philip had established the Macedonian hegemony over Greece, he prepared for an invasion of Persia, to revenge the former destruction of Athens. But he was assassinated before he could start on the campaign (336 B.C.).

Accession of Alexander.—Philip's successor was Alexander, a youth of twenty, who had already shown skill and bravery as a general in the battle of Chaeronea. The Greeks thought that so young a man could not hold the realm together, and revolted at once.

Alexander, however, proved his genius by a campaign so swift that all rebels were overthrown before they had time to mature their plans. Thebes was punished by total destruction.

Conquest of the Persian Empire.—In 334 B.C. Alexander crossed the Hellespont with a picked army of

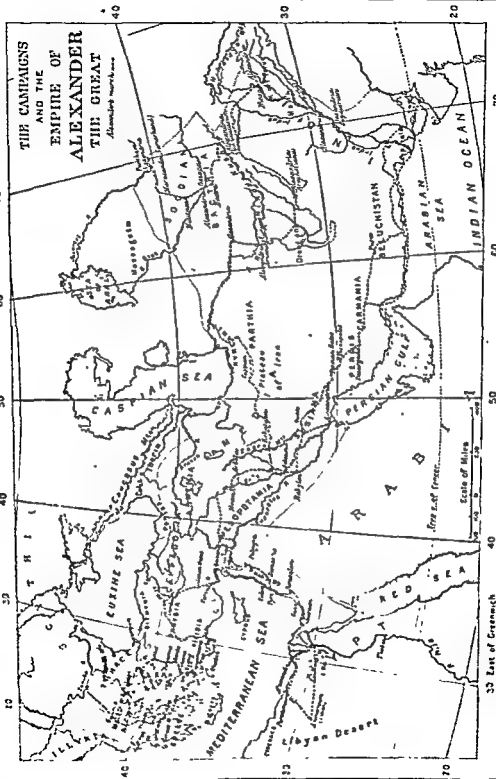


ALEXANDER.

35,000 men. He was met at the river *Granicus* by the joint satraps of Asia Minor at the head of a large force, including Greek mercenaries. Their total defeat laid all Asia Minor open to the invader. He marched through the country at will, until *Darius III.*, the Persian King, opposed him with an immense army. At *Issus*, on a small plain in the north-east corner of the Mediterranean, Alexander won a brilliant victory,

THE CAMPAIGNS AND THE EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT

Alphabetical names in italics



333 B.C. The Persian troops were slaughtered or scattered, after Darius had fled in panic from the field. The king's family remained captive in the hands of the victor.

Alexander now turned south for the conquest of Syria. *Tyre* resisted for seven months. As a warning to other cities Alexander destroyed the ancient sea-port, and killed or enslaved its inhabitants.

Meanwhile Darius sent envoys, humbly asking for peace. He offered the hand of his daughter, with half of the empire for a dowry. The general Parmenio exclaimed: "I should accept, were I Alexander." "And so should I, were I Parmenio," replied the king.

The Egyptians received Alexander with open arms. They preferred the Macedonian masters to the Persians. While in Egypt Alexander founded the sea-port named after him, *Alexandria*, which still stands as an enduring monument to his fame. Then he travelled to the oracle of Zeus in the oasis of Siwah, five days' march through the Lybian desert. The priest called him the son of Zeus, and prophesied that he would conquer the world. After that, Alexander really believed that he was the son of a god, and began to demand divine worship from his subjects.

From Egypt the conqueror marched into the heart of the empire, where Darius had gathered an immense army. The Persian forces, twenty times more numerous than the Macedonians, were assembled at *Arbela*, near the site of ancient Nineveh. Their numbers were of no avail against the strategic-genius of Alexander, combined with the discipline of the Macedonian

veterans. Darius was totally defeated, -and fled. After the victory of Arbela, the Persian monarchy fell to pieces. Some single satraps still tried to hold out against Alexander as independent rulers, but were easily overcome in a series of campaigns.

The Babylonians now hailed Alexander as their sovereign, and received the Macedonian soldiers in triumph into their city. From here Alexander crossed



DARIUS IN BATTLE OF ISSUS.
From a mosaic picture found at Pompeii

the Zagros mountains into Persia proper, storming on the route some difficult passes which were valiantly defended by the natives. *Susa*, the capital of Persia, and other cities were captured. Enormous treasures of gold, silver, and precious stones, estimated at over thirty million pounds sterling, fell into his hands.

Conquest of the Eastern Provinces, and of India.—After a few months' rest Alexander set out in pursuit of Darius, whom he wished formally to renounce his claims to the crown. A faithless satrap murdered the unfortunate king just before Alexander caught up with

him. Alexander continued his march through what is now Afghanistan, crossed the Hindukush mountains, and penetrated north beyond the Persian boundaries into the land of the nomadic Scythians (now Russian Turkestan). There he built a fortified city called the "Farthest Alexandria." Although he had now been campaigning under incredible hardships for six years, his ambition gave him no rest. He led his veterans across the passes of the Himalaya into India, and subjected the Punjab. When he wished to press eastward beyond the *Hyphasis* river, his troops flung down their arms, and refused to advance another foot. None of them had toiled so incessantly, and risked their lives so constantly, as their young commander. Yet they felt that a still further campaign into unknown lands was beyond their strength. Since the soldiers kept him from pressing on eastward, Alexander wanted at least to enlarge his dominions in other directions. So he marched south, down the Indus valley. On the way many warlike tribes were subjugated. While storming a fort at the head of his soldiers, Alexander received a dangerous wound in his breast. In a few weeks it was healed, and he was eager for new adventures. At the mouth of the Indus he divided his forces. The greater part was to sail over the Indian Ocean, and through the Persian Gulf, to open a new sea route from Babylonia to India. Alexander himself led a smaller, picked detachment through modern Beluchistan. Their march lay through some of the dreariest deserts on earth, which even to-day are not well known to geographers. Two months in this wilderness cost the lives of two-thirds of his men.

The Last Two Years of Alexander.—Alexander now began to organize the government of his conquests. His plans were of a magnitude beyond the thoughts of any man who had lived before him. He wished to found a new civilization by mixing Greek and Persian elements. The East and the West were to form one huge nation under his rule. He had already founded many cities, and settled them with Greek or Macedonian veterans. To quicken the mixing of races, he married a Persian princess, and told ten thousand of his soldiers to take Asiatic wives. His military campaigns had all been combined with the opening of new routes for trade, and with scientific exploration. Aristotle received from his pupil rich collections of plants, minerals, and other objects for scientific study, which had been gathered in all the countries between the Mediterranean and the Hyphasis.

His Death (323 B.C.).—All these activities and schemes for the building up of a new world were not enough to satisfy Alexander. He also planned to carry his arms westward, and to add Italy and Northern Africa to his dominions. One may wonder, indeed, how much more he would have changed the course of history, had not his career ended, in 323 B.C., at Babylon. He had caught a fever while exploring the route for a ship canal from the lower Euphrates to the Persian Gulf. Instead of resting he neglected the sickness, and continued to work, thus bringing on his early death. With him departed the most daring, perhaps altogether the greatest spirit in all history.

. **Results of Alexander's Conquests.**—Alexander's plan of hellenizing Asia was partly realized. The Greek language for centuries after was spoken by the ruling classes from India to Italy. Many centres of Greek learning grew up in the East. Greek merchants hereafter traded regularly with India, where they became acquainted with Chinese silk. The silk trade, which assumed large proportions during the Roman empire, formed the first link between China and the West. The effect of Alexander's conquests on Greece was unfortunate. A large part of her population was drained from the country and scattered over the East. Greece sank into a small province of the Macedonian empire. Alexandria took the place of Athens as the centre of Greek learning.

The Successors of Alexander.—Confusion and discord followed the death of Alexander. No one of his generals was strong enough to hold the empire together. Yet they could not agree how to divide it. Of the various kingdoms founded on the ruins of the Empire, *Egypt* had the longest separate existence. A new dynasty, the *Ptolemies*, founded by one of Alexander's generals, established their capital at *Alexandria*. They were great patrons of learning, literature, and art. By their help, Alexandria became the centre of the later Greek civilization. *Macedonia* also remained an independent power, until it was conquered by the Romans. Several other states flourished in Western Asia, until they also were absorbed in the Roman empire.

CHAPTER XI

HISTORY OF ROME TO THE FIRST PUNIC WAR

Geography of Ancient Italy.—Before the rise of Rome, Italy was divided into many separate districts. The Po valley belonged to the *Gauls*, who conquered most of northern Italy about 500 B.C. The land between the Adriatic sea and the Alps was occupied by the *Veneti*, and was named *Venctia*. The western part of central Italy, known as *Etruria*, belonged to the *Etruscans*. They were a powerful, civilized nation, whose rule at one time extended well into southern Italy. The Romans were for a time governed by Etruscan kings, and many parts of early Roman religion and architecture were of Etruscan origin. South of the Tiber lay the district of *Latium*, the inhabitants of which were called *Latins*. The Romans spoke Latin, the language of this district, of which they were originally a small tribe. The mountainous regions east and south of Latium were inhabited by various warlike shepherd tribes, of which the *Samnites* in Samnium were the strongest. Southern Italy was known as *Great Greece*, because it was in the hands of the

Greeks. The island of *Sicily* was divided between the *Greeks*, who occupied the eastern part, and the *Carthaginians*, who held the harbours of the west coast.

Roman Religion.—The Romans were polytheists. They had many religious ceremonies, which they observed carefully. Their chief god was *Jupiter*, god of the sky. *Mars*, the war god, stood in high honour. The month of March was named after him. *Janus* was the god of beginnings and ends; hence the month of January, with which the year began, was sacred to him. The Romans also worshipped their *ancestors*, whose tablets or altars were put up in every house. Certain priests, called *Augurs*, foretold the future by observing signs, or *omens*, which revealed the will of the gods. The omens were often sought by looking at birds, and the decisions of the priests were then called *auspices* (*an* = bird, *spice* = look). These ancient terms (*augur*, as a verb, *omen*, and *auspices*) are still common English expressions.

In later times the religions of Greece and Egypt were accepted by the Romans, and flourished together with the national faith until paganism was driven out by Christianity.

Legends about early Roman History.—When Rome had become a world power, poets and historical writers collected stories about the foundation and early fortunes of the city. It was founded—so they said—in 753 B.C. by *Romulus*, the son of the war god Mars. Seven kings ruled over the city until 510 B.C., when the last one was driven out, and a republic was established.



The Beginnings of Rome.—The real date of the foundation of Rome is unknown. The town began as a small Latin settlement on the Tiber, and grew slowly, until it was the strongest city in Latium. Its government was a *patriarchal monarchy*, almost exactly like that described in the Greek poems of Homer.

The Republican Government.—About 510 B.C. king Tarquinius, an Etruscan, was driven out of Rome, and a republic was established in place of the monarchy. The chief magistracy was given to two *consuls*, who were elected for one year by the popular assembly. The latter could also decide laws proposed to it by the magistrates. The *Senate* or council of elders (*sen* = old) consisted of the heads of noble families. It could only advise the consuls, but could not force them to obey.

The purpose of having two consuls was that one should check the other, somewhat as the two kings did in Sparta. An ambitious magistrate was prevented by his colleague from attempting to make himself king or tyrant. But the divided control of affairs had also some disadvantages. Public business was often delayed, because the two consuls could not agree about their policy. Such delays were dangerous in war time, especially in the face of an able enemy. Therefore the Romans made the office of *dictator*, a position which conferred absolute power on its holder. In times of public danger, a dictator was appointed by the consuls. He remained sole ruler until the danger was over, but never longer than six months.

Classes in Early Rome.—During the first centuries of the republic there were two classes in Rome. The *patricians*, or nobles, resembled the nobles in Athens before the reforms of Solon. They kept all public offices for themselves. The *plebeians* were excluded from office. Most of them were poor people. The old law of debt was the same in Rome as in Athens. During the wars, which followed the expulsion of the kings, many poor plebeians fell into debt, and were treated as slaves by their creditors.

Secession of the Plebeians; Appointment of Tribunes for the Plebs—The poor people at last grew desperate and emigrated from Rome to a place called the 'Sacred Mount,' where they intended to build a new city (494 B.C.). The patricians now yielded to the demands of the lower class, rather than to have Rome ruined by the loss of its working population. The oppressive debts were cancelled. Officers called *Tribunes of the Plebs* were chosen, whose duty was to protect the plebeians against injustice. The tribunes could *veto* (= forbid) any law, and stop any punishment which was unjust to the plebeians. The tribunes were declared sacred, and any one who tried to interfere with their work, could be put to death.

Laws of the Twelve Tables (450 B.C.).—The tribunes used their power in a constant struggle to increase the political rights of the plebs. They soon recognized that justice could not be obtained from the patrician consuls, so long as the law was unwritten. The magistrates often rendered arbitrary and unfair decisions, without fear of being held to account,

because no one knew what the proper law really was. For over ten years the patricians resisted every effort of the tribunes to have the laws codified. At last commissioners were sent to Greece, to study the laws of Solon, and other codes. Then ten men, called *Decemvirs* (*decem* = 10; *vir* = man), were appointed to draw up a code of laws. After nearly two years' labour the code was finished and inscribed on twelve bronze tables, which were set up in the Forum (market place); 450 B.C. The Roman school boys had to learn the laws of the twelve tables by heart.

Continued Struggle of the Plebeians for Political Equality.—As Rome grew in size and wealth, the influence of the plebeians increased steadily. Many of them became rich through trade, and had just as much interest in the government as the noble patricians. They now demanded to share equally with the latter in all political privileges. In 444 B.C. they succeeded in getting admitted to the consular power. But the patricians first diminished the importance of the office, and changed its name for that of '*Military Tribunes with Consular Power*.' At the same time the new office of *Censor* was created. Only a patrician could be elected to the censorate. The Censor took the census every five years; he appointed or degraded the senators, prepared the budget, and superintended public buildings. He also guarded public morality, and could punish citizens for immoral conduct.

For about half a century the plebeians remained satisfied with these constitutional changes. Then the

struggle was renewed. The patricians defended themselves by diminishing still more the authority of the consuls. The judicial functions were put into the hands of new magistrates who had to be patricians. Then, in 366 B.C., the first plebeian consul was elected. The plebeians continued to demand complete equality, until all offices, including the censorate, were thrown open to them. By the year 300 B.C. this long political struggle had come to an end. The distinction between patricians and plebeians gradually was forgotten.

Wars with the Etruscans; Sack of Rome by the Gauls.—It has been stated above, that the Etruscans had once been masters over Latium, and had even ruled in Rome. The contests between Romans and Etruscans continued for a long time. The turning point in the war came with the capture of *Veii*, a fortified city, which the Romans had besieged for ten years (396 B.C.). The loss of this stronghold broke the Etruscan power. The Romans now took one city after another, until all Etruria fell under their dominion.

Six years after the fall of *Veii*, Rome itself was in danger of being destroyed for ever. The *Gauls* came south from the Po valley on a plundering expedition. At the river *Allia*, near Rome, they totally defeated and scattered the Roman army sent to stop their advance (390 B.C.). Before the panic-stricken population could organize a defence, the barbarian hordes were already plundering and burning the city. Only a ransom of a thousand pounds of gold prevented the victors from razing the whole city to the ground. The public records were burned during this disaster,

so that the early history of Rome can never be fully known.

Favourable Geographical Position of Rome.—When the Gauls had marched away, many of the poorer people were disheartened at the big task of rebuilding their ruined homes. They proposed to move to the site of Veii, and to establish there a new Rome. Had their wishes prevailed, the world would never have bowed under the rule of their descendants. The position of Rome was an essential factor in the growth of her power. The city limits could expand freely in all directions, to make room for the growing population. The Tiber afforded direct connection with the sea, where a commercial port, *Ostia*, was already springing up. A third advantage was the central position of Rome on the Italian peninsula. When she was threatened by enemies from several sides, as repeatedly happened, she always had the advantage of inner lines. Her armies could strike in all directions from the central stronghold, and so prevent the enemies from combining. The fourth advantage for the conquest of Italy lay in the uniform configuration of that peninsula. In contrast to Greece, which is split up by mountains into isolated districts, Italy forms a compact country.

Causes of the Roman Conquests.—The Romans are so often spoken of as a race of conquerors, that their history is easily misunderstood. The victors of Veii did not at first intend to annex all Etruria, and the conquerors of Etruria did not deliberately subjugate all Italy. Nearly all of the Roman wars were necessary, either for immediate self-defence or to forestall inevitable future attacks. Roman annals do not record a single campaign which was so unprovoked as the wars of Alexander the Great. Rome rose supreme over the Western World, because her armies and her laws were better than those of many rivals who tried to crush her.

Roman Character.—Love of liberty, which distinguished the Greeks so markedly from the Orientals,

was strong also in the Roman hearts. But here it was coupled with a spirit of obedience, of discipline, and of reverence for authority. Among the Roman citizens there was no trace of that flightiness which ruined the Athenians. Like the Chinese the Romans laid special stress on filial piety, on exact observance of ceremonies, and on the maintenance of old traditions. Many institutions of modern China, which seem so strange to the Westerner, would appear quite natural to a Roman of the early Republic. It has been mentioned that ancestor worship was generally practised. The father had absolute authority over his whole family. He could even put his son to death for disobedience. The Romans always were anxious that all business, public or private, should be done in due form, in exact accordance with the law. The finest Roman virtue was a noble *sense of duty*, especially in public affairs. Roman history tells many stories of that spirit of self-sacrifice by which the Japanese now are making their nation great.

The supreme value of all the above qualities for a military nation is readily understood. Personal bravery was taken for granted in every self-respecting Roman. The word 'virtue,' which now designates any good quality, meant at first bravery, and it was derived from *vir* (= man). Bravery, therefore, was the quality natural to a Roman man.

In their dealings with each other, the Romans were truthful and honest. Toward foreigners, however, whom they despised, they were guilty of trickery and bad faith. They were also apt to be cruel and unjust to conquered peoples.

The Roman Military System.—Every Roman citizen was a soldier in the national force. In early times the citizens supplied their own military equipment, and supported themselves during a campaign. During the arduous siege of Veii, the soldiers were paid out of the public treasury, and this custom afterwards became fixed. The unit of a Roman army was the famous *Legion*. The Roman generals often changed and improved the legion. At its best, it consisted of over 6000 men, mostly infantry, supported by cavalry, artillery, and engineers. The soldiers were trained by a severe course of exercises, including running and swimming. During a campaign in the enemy's country, a fortified camp was built every night.

Having now learned what natural causes underlay the Roman conquests, and by what qualities the Romans were especially fitted for the task of uniting the Western World under one government, we shall proceed to follow briefly the victorious career of the legions.

The Conquest of Italy.—Within a century and a quarter after the battle of the Allia the Romans were masters over all Italy. The details of this conquest are stories of almost ceaseless warfare. Several times the Roman armies were defeated, and dictators were appointed to preserve the safety of the republic. The most determined foes of Rome were the *Samnites*. In bravery and military skill they were equal to the Romans, but they lacked the wise political guidance which Rome had from her senate. It was of no avail that the Samnite leaders ranged nearly all Italy,

including Greeks, Etruscans, and Gauls, against the common enemy. Rome triumphed over their united forces, and made herself supreme over the peninsula.

The War with Pyrrhus.—The wealthy city of *Tarentum* still retained its independence. When the Tarentines saw their trade threatened by the appearance of Roman war galleys in the Adriatic,



Pyrrhus.

they deliberately provoked a war with Rome, and called king *Pyrrhus* of Epirus to their assistance. Pyrrhus was a cousin of Alexander the Great. He wished to give proof of his military genius by erecting an empire in the West, which should rival Alexander's eastern dominion. In 280 B.C. he defeated the Romans in the battle of *Heraclea*. The legions long held their own, but were confused by the war elephants of Pyrrhus, and then broken by the charge of the phalanx. Pyrrhus recognized that the Roman legionaries were

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better than his Greek soldiers. "Had I such soldiers," he said, "I could conquer the world." In the following year he won another victory, but with such appalling losses that he could not follow up his advantage. When he fought once more, in 275 B.C., at *Benaventum*, he was badly defeated. Giving up all hopes of success, he withdrew to his kingdom across the Adriatic, thus leaving the Romans free to complete their conquest of Italy.

CHAPTER XII

FROM THE FIRST PUNIC WAR TO THE DESTRUCTION OF CARTHAGE

Carthage.—Where the African coast projects nearest to Sicily, the Phoenicians founded the colony of *Carthage*, during the ninth century B.C. Five centuries later, when Phoenician power in the East had already declined, Carthage was the commercial centre of the Mediterranean. In wealth and in sea power it was superior to Rome. The Carthaginian navy controlled the sea from Sicily to the Strait of Gibraltar. Western Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, and the Spanish coast were all occupied by the soldiers and traders of Carthage. Their African realm extended along the coast, and included most of what is now Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco.

Causes of the Punic Wars.—Rome and Carthage were two rival powers, both expanding, and both needing for their growth the command of the Mediterranean. So long as the Punic galleys lorded it over the sea, Rome could not feel secure on her own shores, and Roman merchants could extend their foreign trade only by permission of their African competitors. The ill-feeling which thus naturally

sprang up between the two states was increased to hatred by their differences in race, language, and religion.

First Punic¹ War (264-241).—In the year 264 B.C. the Romans occupied the city of Messana, on the pretext of helping some friends against the king of Syracuse. Messana was already held by a Carthaginian garrison, and the Roman attack was therefore the signal for war. At first the fighting was confined to Sicily. The Roman legions won several victories over the Punic mercenary armies, but no decided advantage could be gained without a fleet. As soon as the Romans recognized the need of a strong navy, they at once showed their energy by building a fleet of one hundred and twenty war galleys within a few months. They fitted each ship with a movable bridge, which could be thrown on to the enemy's vessel, so that the two were locked together. The fighting thus was made like a land battle, and the Carthaginian sailors lost the advantage of their superior seamanship. The new fleet engaged the enemy off the promontory of *Mylæ*, on the northern coast of Sicily, 260 B.C. By the new tactics the Carthaginians were completely defeated.

The Romans now expected to end the war. The consul *Regulus* did indeed almost destroy a Punic fleet, which tried to stop his landing in Africa. His army advanced on Carthage, and the terrified citizens were ready to make peace. But Regulus set such humiliating terms, that the Carthaginians were

¹ 'Punic,' probably a shorter form of 'Phœnician,' means the same as Carthaginian.

roused to a supreme effort in defence of their country. Regulus and most of his army were captured. After this Punic success the war was waged for fourteen years longer with varying fortunes. The Romans lost four large fleets by storms. A hundred thousand men are reported to have been drowned in one of these disasters. For six years the Romans did not dare to attempt naval war, because they believed that the sea-god was angry with them.

During the last period of the war a great general, *Hamilcar Barcas*, commanded the Punic army in Sicily. He steadily beat back the consuls sent against him. At last wealthy patriots in Rome built a new fleet out of private funds. With this armament the consul won a decisive victory at the *Aegatian Islands*, in 241. A treaty of peace was now made, by which the Carthaginians gave up Sicily, and paid a large war indemnity. Sicily became the first province of the Roman republic.

Events between the First and the Second Punic War.—Both parties to the treaty of 241 knew that the peace was only temporary, and both made every effort to strengthen themselves for a second struggle.

The Carthaginians were in terrible danger through a revolt of the mercenary troops. When all seemed lost, and Carthage itself was held in close siege by the rebels, Hamilcar Barcas suddenly put down the insurrection. Then he re-established the authority of his government throughout the dependencies, and made good the loss of Sicily by conquering the greater part of Spain. There he trained a fine army, and enriched his treasury from the silver mines.

The Barcas family is remarkable in history for having produced four eminent generals. The three sons of Hamilcar all followed in their father's footsteps, and the oldest of them, *Hannibal*, is ranked among the world's greatest commanders. He took

charge of the Spanish forces in 211 B.C.



HANNIBAL.

The Romans took *Sardinia* and *Corsica* from the Carthaginians, while the latter were helpless on account of the rebellion of the mercenaries. In this high-handed and dishonourable way, Rome secured undisputed control of her western sea front. At the

same time she put down some piratical tribes beyond the Adriatic, and was acknowledged as suzerain over the islands in that sea. The northern frontier was extended to the Alps by the methodical subjection of the Gauls, whose country was organized as the province of *Cisalpine Gaul*.¹ The beginning of the second Punic war therefore found Roman power extended in all directions.

¹ *Cis* = this side of; *cisalpine* = this side of the Alps.

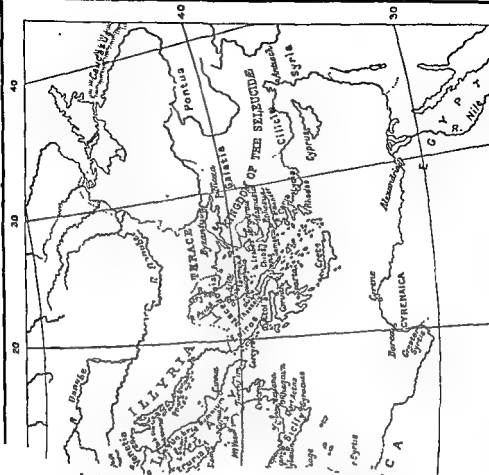
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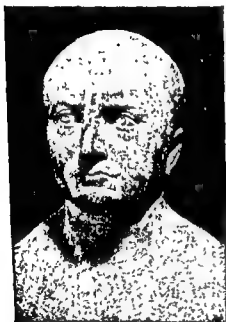
in suit, he prepared an ambush at *Lake Trasimene*, 217, and slaughtered the Roman army almost to the last man. The people of Rome were terrified, and broke the bridges over the Tiber, expecting an immediate attack on the city. Hannibal, however, passed by Rome, with the intention of inciting the tribes of Southern Italy to rebellion. *Fabius Maximus* was appointed dictator. His method of warfare, since then called Fabian, was to annoy Hannibal by frequent attacks, while avoiding a pitched battle. The people called Fabius the 'Delayer.' They soon grew impatient, and demanded a more active policy. Their wish was carried out by the consuls for the year 216.



- completely defeated. His head was thrown into Hannibal's camp. The great commander steadily fought on in Southern Italy, until he was called to the defence of his home country.

The consul *Scipio* had invaded Africa and threatened Carthage. Hannibal could not long avert the ultimate defeat which he had foreseen after his brother's death at the Metaurus. In 202 Scipio gained a decisive victory at *Zama*, near Carthage, and so ended the war. To get peace, Carthage had to give up Spain and all the Mediterranean islands. In addition, she had to pay a heavy yearly tribute, surrender her navy, and agree not to declare any war without the consent of Rome.

Conquest of Macedonia and of Asia Minor.—The king of *Macedonia* sent some troops to help Hannibal in the second Punic war. For this and some other offences the Roman Senate declared war. Macedonia was soon compelled to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome. The friendship of Hannibal also proved



SCIPIO AFRICANUS MAJOR (Bernoulli).

fatal to *Antiochus the Great* of Syria. This ruler received Hannibal at his court, after the latter had been forced to flee from Carthage. Antiochus also started to extend his dominions into Europe, thus trespassing on Macedonia, a Roman subject state. A Roman army soon drove him out of Greece, followed him into Asia Minor, and defeated him in the battle of *Magnesia*, 190 B.C. Most of Asia Minor was given

to king *Eumenes* of Pergamus, a friend and ally of the senate, which thus avoided the trouble of governing so distant a province. Hannibal finally took poison, to avoid falling into the hands of the Romans.

Greece had fallen under Roman rule as part of Macedonia. When the Greeks revolted against the unjust treatment of their new masters, the Roman consul *Mummius* suppressed the rebellion in blood.

Corinth, then the richest city in Greece, was razed to the ground, 146 B.C.

Third Punic War (149-146).—The year 146 is notable not only for the final blow to Greek liberty, but it marks also the establishment of Roman government in Africa. Three years earlier the Carthaginians had been driven into war by the repeated insults and depredations of a neighbouring African king. Although the Carthaginians acted only in self-defence, the Roman senate at once accused them of having broken the treaty of 201, and sent two armies against them. Feeling too weak for a contest, the Carthaginians humbly asked for peace on any conditions. At the command of the consul they delivered up all their weapons and war-ships. But when they thus had given away all their means of defence, the consul ordered them to abandon Carthage, and to start a new settlement ten miles from the sea. On receipt of this order the meekness of the Carthaginians changed to the courage of despair. The whole population, irrespective of age, sex, or rank, devoted itself to the defence of the city. The women cut off their long hair, to braid it into bow strings. A



ANTIOCHUS THE GREAT.

new navy was built in the inner harbour, and the Roman attack was repulsed. For two years the besieging army was unable to take the city. In 146 the consul *Scipio* assumed the command. He conducted the siege with great energy and skill, and finally captured the city. By a conflagration, which lasted seventeen days, the hated rival of Rome was converted into a heap of ruins.

Provincial Administration.—In addition to Sicily, Sardinia with Corsica, and Gaul south of the Alps, Rome now possessed also the provinces of Spain, Africa, Macedonia, and Greece. The provincials were treated as conquered people, without political rights. By special agreement, many cities retained the privilege of local self-government, but they were not represented in the Roman provincial administration. At the head of a province stood a *proconsul* or a *propraetor*, whose term of office was usually one year. During his rule, he enjoyed unlimited authority. The position soon was abused for every kind of extortion from the provincials. The taxes were farmed out by the senate to the highest bidders, usually the wealthy nobles. These sent their agents, called *publicans*, to collect the taxes from the people. The publicans soon were more feared and hated than any other class of men in the provinces. Through them, and through the spoils of war, enormous wealth poured from the conquered countries into Rome.

CHAPTER XIII

THE DECAY OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC AND THE GROWTH OF ONE-MAN POWER

Introduction: Political and Social Condition of Rome after the Punic Wars.—The republican constitution of Rome was made for the government of a small city state. When the greater part of the Mediterranean countries fell under the sway of Rome, her municipal government proved quite inadequate for the task of ruling so vast an empire. The earliest political result of the foreign wars was, that the *senate* assumed almost exclusive control of the government. The popular assemblies could not understand the difficult questions of foreign policy, and were glad to leave their settlement to the senate, which was made up of experienced statesmen and generals. The government thus fell into the hands of a rich aristocracy, whose members soon considered all government offices as a monopoly of their small caste. The forms of the old republic continued unchanged. Popular assemblies still met, elected magistrates, and decided laws. But the mass of the people had lost their former patriotism. They no longer took a real interest in the welfare of the state. They cast

their votes for those candidates who pleased them best by gifts of grain and of free theatrical shows.

This corruption of the Roman people was the consequence of war and conquest. During the devastations of the Hannibalic wars the Italian farmer class was ruined. The many victories, which followed soon after, threw vast numbers of *slaves* into the hands of the richer Romans. In Sicily, for example, slave labour was so cheap, that the owners of estates worked their sick slaves to death, rather than to care for their recovery. It cost them less to buy a new slave, than to provide humane treatment for the old one. This cheap labour enabled contractors from Sicily and Africa to supply the Roman market with grain at a price considerably lower than the cost of raising grain on an Italian freehold. Hence the farmers were forced to sell their land to rich nobles, and to look for some means of livelihood in Rome. The capital became filled with a numerous mob of poor people. Many of them had no other support than the public donations of grain and the private largesses given by nobles who wished to buy votes for election to some office.

In the senatorial class luxury and the greed for wealth increased steadily. The provinces were considered as storehouses of plunder for the enrichment of Roman governors. It was a common saying that three years of proconsulship were required to make a man's fortune. The first year's plunder would pay the debts made in bribery for getting the office. The second year's gain would suffice to corrupt the judges in case of a trial for maladministration; while

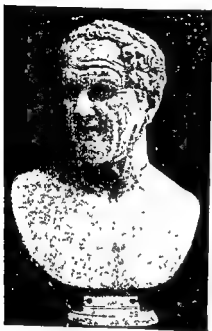
the profits of the third year would make the governor a rich man.

To sum up, the people were divided into two extreme classes, the few rich and the many poor. The rich controlled the government for their own profit. The poor mob used their votes chiefly as a means of procuring food and amusement. The distress of the masses led to revolutions in Rome, and the greed of the senatorial class ruined the provinces.

Reforms of the Gracchi.—The brothers Tiberius and Caius Gracchus succeeded in making some temporary reforms during the years 133 to 123 B.C. As tribunes of the people they enforced laws forbidding any one to hold excessive amounts of public land, and distributing land among poor citizens. They also provided for many needy people by settling colonies of them in the provinces. As the measures of the Gracchi endangered the political power of the senatorial class, the latter offered violent opposition, which finally led to civil war. Both of the brothers met their death while fighting for the cause of the people.

Civil War of Marius and Sulla.—The reforms of the Gracchi afforded only short relief from the evils which were corrupting the Roman state. The senatorial class sank more and more into the shameless methods of bribery at home and of extortion in the provinces. The selfishness of the individual senators and officials, who were all intent on their private interests, weakened the power of the government as a whole. On the other hand, single men of ability rose to an influence which had been unknown in the honest times of the earlier republic.

The principal tool of these leaders was the *army*. The Roman citizens had lost their martial valour under the enervating influence of luxury and idleness. They preferred to shift the hardships of foreign campaigns on to a hired soldiery, levied in all the provinces of the empire. These soldiers had no interest in the welfare



SULLA.

of Rome, but were personally attached to successful and popular generals. They were just as ready to follow their general against his political enemies in Italy as against some revolted tribes in Africa.

The conditions just outlined developed quite gradually. They were in full sway during the civil war between *Marius* and *Sulla*, 88-82 B.C.

Marius, the son of a day labourer, had risen in the ranks of the army to be commanding general.

His military successes made him the idol of the soldiers, and won for him genuine popularity among the common people, who always counted him as one of themselves. In the years 102 and 101 he gained the battles of *Aquæ Sextiæ* and of *Vercellæ* against the Cimbri and Teutones. These barbarian Germans had defeated several Roman armies, and threatened Rome herself by a descent into Northern Italy. *Marius*

literally annihilated their hosts, and earned the title 'Saviour of the Country.' On his return to Rome he was elected consul for the sixth time, and allied himself with the popular party, with a view to becoming sole ruler in Rome. He failed, however, owing to his cruelty and bad management.

Sulla, the great rival of Marius, belonged to the party of the *Optimates* (= best ones; the rich nobles). He had risen to fame as a skilful lieutenant of Marius, and for independent successes in Asia Minor. Sulla, like Marius, aimed at the control of the government.

In 88 B.C. a war broke out with *Mithridates*, king of



COIN OF MITHRADATES VI THE GREAT KING OF PONTUS

Pontus, in Northern Asia Minor. Sulla and Marius both wished to get the command of the army, because each intended thereby to make his party supreme. Sulla decided the issue by storming Rome at the head of his soldiers, and putting the leaders of the popular party to death. Marius was outlawed, and barely saved his life. Within a year after Sulla's departure for the East, Marius was recalled to head an army gathered by his friend *Cinna*. Rome was stormed for a second time. For five days the bands of Marius raged in the city, and killed all optimates who had not already fled. The property of the slaughtered men was confiscated by Marius. Marius and Cinna had themselves elected consuls, but Marius died shortly

after his triumph. Cinna continued to rule tyrannically for three years longer.

In 83 B.C. Sulla returned to Italy at the head of 40,000 veteran soldiers. After a year's fighting against the forces of the Marian party he entered Rome as dictator. He took a terrible revenge for the outrages of the popular party. The names of all men suggested by his friends were written on a list, which was daily hung in the Forum. The victims thus *proscribed* were outlawed, and their property was confiscated. The *proscriptions* of Sulla extended from Italy even to the provinces. His political enemies were butchered by the tens of thousands, until every trace of resistance was wiped out in blood. The senate confirmed all of Sulla's acts as right and legal, and made him dictator for life. After an absolute rule of three years he suddenly resigned his dictatorship. The following year (78 B.C.) he died.

Before treating of the successors of Marius and Sulla we must mention a few important events of the period.

Servile Wars in Sicily.—Slavery has never led to more injustice and cruelty than during the last century of the Roman republic. Its effects on the free population of Italy have already been indicated. The lot of the slaves themselves was often terrible beyond description. Prisoners of war from all points of the compass swelled the number of these unfortunate wretches. In Sicily some single estates were worked by 20,000 slaves. The overseers took the strictest precautions against revolt. But in the years 134-132 B.C. the slaves succeeded in organizing a rebellion,

which was suppressed only after four Roman armies had been defeated. A second servile war distracted Sicily thirty years later.

War of the Gladiators.—*Gladiators* were professional fighters who fought for the amusement of the people. Large numbers of them were gathered in the training schools, where they prepared for the deadly combats before the public. In the year 73 several bands of these gladiators seized a stronghold on Mount Vesuvius, and plundered the country round about. They were soon joined by other gladiators and by fugitive slaves, until they formed a large army, which defied the consular forces for two years. The rebellion was finally crushed, and the slaves were killed like wild animals.

Mithridatic Wars (86-64).—Mithridates, king of Pontus, was for the Romans a second Hannibal. In 88 B.C. he organized a conspiracy throughout Asia Minor against the hated Romans. In one night about 100,000 Italians resident in the East were murdered. While *Sulla* was losing time in party strife, Mithridates sent an army and fleet into Greece, where most of the cities, including Athens, joined his cause. Sulla reconquered Greece in two brilliant campaigns, and then prepared to attack Mithridates in his Asiatic dominions. The latter preferred to make peace, after surrendering all territories taken from the Romans, and paying a heavy indemnity. A year later the war was renewed, and Mithridates defeated the Roman propractor, who had invaded Pontus. The contest ended in a treaty, which was a renewal of the first peace. In the year 74 the Romans occupied some

territory claimed by Mithridates as part of his own dominions. The latter at once commenced hostilities, and defeated one of the consuls by land and sea. But he found his match in the other consul, *Lucullus*, a commander of rare ability. Lucullus drove the king out of his own country, and subjected the eastern part of Asia Minor in a series of daring marches. But he was forced to retreat by a mutiny among his own soldiers. Mithridates at once pressed forward again, and ravaged two Roman provinces. Meanwhile *Pompey* was entrusted with the command in Asia. He followed Mithridates as far as the Caucasus mountains, but was unable to capture him. The long struggle was definitely ended by the death of Mithridates in 63 B.C. The undaunted king was planning an invasion of Italy, when suddenly his own son revolted against him. The news broke his proud heart. He died by his own hand.

The Rise of Pompey the Great.—Foremost among the young partisans of Sulla was the noble *Pompey*. When the dictator died, Pompey seemed to be the natural heir of his power. He conducted an arduous campaign in Spain against *Sertorius*, who had set himself up as an independent sovereign in the peninsula. In the course of his Spanish career Pompey bore himself more like a prince than a republican official. In the government of the province he bestowed all places of power on his friends and dependents. During the succeeding years his luck and his military ability combined to raise him to the first place in Rome. He came to Italy just in time to finish the war of the gladiators, and so got the

credit for the work already accomplished by others. Similarly he reaped in the third Mithridatic war the fruits of Lucullus' victories. In his Asiatic campaign he held by a special law absolute authority over all of the East. The year before he had already received dictatorial powers over the whole Mediterranean and all its coasts, for the purpose of exterminating the *pirates*. After the destruction of Carthage and Corinth much of the world's trade had been ruined, and sea-men sought in robbery the profit which they had formerly found in legitimate enterprises. They gradually formed an organized pirate government. An immense fleet scoured the Mediterranean for booty, and even threatened Rome with famine by capturing the corn ships. Pompey cleared the Mediterranean of the robbers in a methodical campaign of only three months.



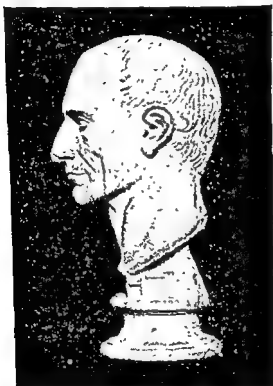
POMPEY

When Pompey returned to Rome from the East his power seemed irresistible. His ability as a politician, however, was of a low order. He was unable to accomplish his designs alone.

The First Triumvirate (60 B.C.).—Two other men, *Caesar* and *Crassus*, joined Pompey in an agreement called the first *triumvirate* (*trium* = of three, *vir* = men).

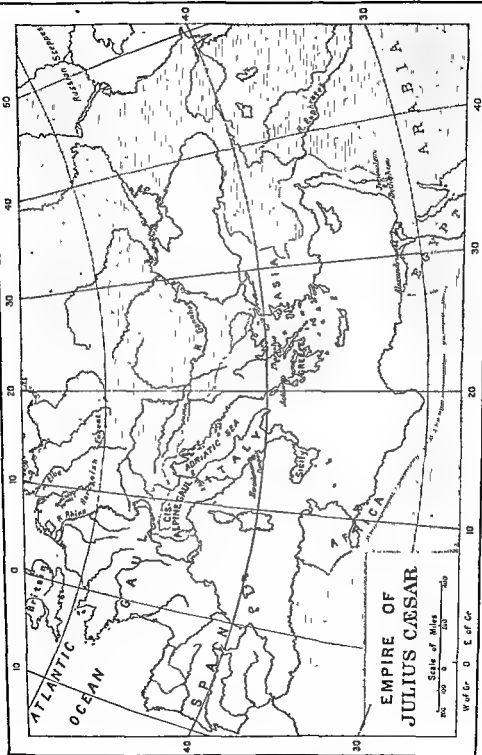
The three agreed to help one another in dividing up the most influential positions in the government. Crassus owed his place entirely to his fabulous wealth.

Julius Caesar was born of an old, noble family in the year 100 B.C. Through his early marriage with



JULIUS CAESAR.

the daughter of Cinna he became allied with the popular party. Sulla therefore wished to proscribe him, and spared his life only to please his aristocratic relatives. After Sulla's death Caesar soon became the recognized leader of the popular party. His eloquence, his personal charm, and his princely liberality won him the favour of the masses. When



the province of Spain was assigned to him as propraetor, his creditors would not allow him to leave Rome until Crassus became surety for his immense debts. By wise administration and by profitable wars he returned to Rome with ample wealth, and with a brilliant reputation as a statesman and a general. He was the driving and the guiding force of the triumvirate. His two associates reaped only temporary advantages from the alliance, while he used it to mount to supreme power.

Conspiracy of Catiline (62 B.C.)—Before tracing the growth of one-man power, as shown in the rivalry between Caesar and Pompey, any further, we must consider an event which illustrates clearly how near its grave the tottering republic had sunk. The conspiracy



Cicero

of *Catiline* was an attempt to overthrow the government by firing the city and assassinating most of the officials. The conspirators were mostly ruined spendthrifts, who intended to enrich themselves by cancelling their debts and by confiscating the property of their opponents. Catiline himself was an infamous fellow. He had put his own brother's name on the proscription list of Sulla in order to get the estate. The consul for the year was *Cicero*, a

noted lawyer and orator. He discovered the whole plot, and denounced Catiline before the senate. The conspirators fled precipitately to their army in Etruria. In the battle fought soon after, most of them, including Catiline, met

their death. Cicero was hailed as the 'father of his country.'

Rivalry between Caesar and Pompey.—The friendship between Caesar and Pompey was never quite sincere. Each used the other as a tool for his own ends. The triumvirs presently divided the administration of the provinces. Crassus took the East, where he hoped to gain military glory. He found defeat and death in a battle against the *Parthians*. Pompey got Spain. He left its government to his subordinates, as he wished to stay in Rome, where he might personally direct events. Caesar was made proconsul of cisalpine Gaul and of transalpine Gaul (now southern France) for ten years. After the death of Crassus the two remaining triumvirs became open opponents. At first Pompey had the advantage. The optimates rallied around him, and the senate ultimately appointed him sole consul with dictatorial power. The popular party meanwhile remained true to Caesar.

Caesar's Conquest of Gaul; His Invasions of Germany and of Britain.—Caesar advanced his own plans by gaining wealth, military experience, and a devoted army of veterans in his *Gallic campaigns*. During his proconsulship he carried the Roman boundaries to the Rhine and the Atlantic. The Gauls offered obstinate resistance. Caesar's own military annals, his *Commentaries on the Gallic War*, tell in wonderfully clear and vivid style of the numerous battles and sieges which made barbarian Gaul into the most valuable Roman province.

Caesar secured the boundaries of the new dominions by driving a horde of German invaders back across

the *Rhine*, and by twice leading his legions over that river into the German forests. By two expeditions into *Britain*, he also inspired the brave dwellers in the northern isle with a dread of the Roman name.

Civil War between Caesar and Pompey (49-46 B.C.) — When Caesar's term as proconsul came to an end, the Pompeians tried by trickery to deprive him of all political power. Caesar's answer was the rapid crossing of the *Rubicon*, a little river dividing Cisalpine Gaul from Italy proper. One of the greatest civil wars in history was now declared, a war made doubly notable by the genius of Caesar. His enemies were superior in wealth, in territories, in soldiers, and in ships. But before the swiftly-falling strokes of the great general all resistance was in vain. Pompey, the senate, and the nobles fled precipitately across the Adriatic to Greece. Within a few months all Italy gladly recognized Caesar's rule. He hurried to Spain and scattered the Pompeian forces there, while one of his generals took Sicily. Next year, 48 B.C., found Caesar in Greece, attacking the main army of Pompey, which outnumbered his own two to one. The battle of *Pharsalus* decided Pompey's fate. He fled to Egypt, hotly pursued by Caesar. At Alexandria Pompey was murdered as he tried to land. Caesar's task was by no means ended. He subdued a dangerous revolt in Alexandria, marched against a rebel king in Asia Minor, and lastly annihilated the Pompeian army in Africa. He had now circled all the Mediterranean countries in his career of victory.

Establishment of Caesarism.—Caesar shortly united in himself all civil and military offices of importance.

He was consul, censor, tribune, dictator. Nominally, the republican constitution remained undisturbed. In fact, Caesar was absolute monarch, because he controlled all government action. An autocracy, veiled under outward forms of republicanism, has since then been called Caesarism.

Caesar's Reforms.—In his reforms Caesar evinced a greatness almost beyond that of his generalship. He abolished tax-farming and established direct taxation of the provinces. The extortions of provincial governors were stopped. New colonies relieved Rome of the dangerous proletariat (= masses of poor people), and hastened the Romanization of the provinces. All these and numerous other reforms brought a new era of peace and prosperity over the empire. What Caesar began was later continued by his adopted son Octavian, the first emperor.

Caesar's Death.—There was in Rome a small group of misguided men, who still tried to uphold the republic. Their leader was *Marcus Brutus*, privately a friend of Caesar, but his secret enemy in politics. Brutus sincerely believed that the republic, and with it liberty, could be brought to new life. He did not understand that liberty had long ago fled together with the ancient civic virtues of the Romans. The selfish nobles and the corrupted people were no longer fit to govern themselves, much less the world. Caesar's personal rule gave offence to the republicans. They suspected him of aspiring to the royal crown. On March 15, 44 B.C., they assassinated him during a session of the senate.

Estimate of Caesar.—To no man has the title "the

Greatest" been so often accorded by historians as to Caesar. Certainly no one has left the impress of his genius more indelibly on the course of human events. His work changed the aspect of the whole Western World. When chaos was imminent, he brought order. As a statesman he stands second to none. Among generals he is the peer of Alexander and of Hannibal. His oratory was rivalled only by Cicero. As a writer of Latin prose he is still admired by all Western classical students. He founded the grandest institution yet known to man: the beneficent Roman empire over the whole civilized West.

The Second Triumvirate.—The immediate consequence of Caesar's death was a renewal of civil war. Out of the struggle the young *Octavian*, Caesar's adopted son, rose as the strongest. In 43 he organized with *Marcus Antonius* and with *Lepidus*, both former friends of Caesar, the second triumvirate. They professed to have the reorganization of the state for their aim. Their real purpose was to divide the whole power among themselves. *Lepidus*, a weak man, was soon cast aside. A rivalry ensued, which developed into a war of the East, headed by Antony, against Italy and the West, commanded by Octavian.

Battle of Actium (31 B.C.).—Antony had fallen in love with *Cleopatra*, the beautiful queen of Egypt. She was just as tricky as beautiful, and did what she liked with the infatuated Antony. It was said in Rome that Antony wished to make Alexandria the capital of the empire, and to have Cleopatra as his queen. These rumours undermined Antony's popularity with the people and the soldiers, and

strengthened the side of Octavian. The issue was decided by the naval battle of Actium, 31 B.C. Cleopatra withdrew in the midst of the contest, and Antony's evil spirit drove him to steer his ship after hers. The victory made Octavian master of the Roman world. Antony committed suicide at Alexandria. Cleopatra also killed herself when she found that she could not move Octavian by her personal charms. Octavian was at once recognized by the population of Lower Egypt as their successor, and the country thus passed under Roman rule.

CHAPTER XIV

THE ROMAN EMPIRE

Reign of Augustus (31 B.C. to A.D. 14).—Octavian established his government along the lines laid down by Caesar. He was careful to avoid all outward show of his monarchical power. He liked to call himself the 'princeps,' or first, of Roman citizens. His distinctive titles were Imperator, Augustus, and Cæsar. All the old republican institutions were retained. The senate still passed decrees, the assemblies still elected consuls. In short, judging by forms and names only, the Romans could regard themselves as free republicans. In fact, they were the subjects of the Caesar. The few offices of weight, which he did not hold himself, he entrusted to men who were the slaves of his will. The senate passed only decrees approved by Augustus, and the people elected only officers nominated by Augustus.

Nearly the whole of the emperor's long reign was a period of profound peace. Since the first struggles of the Tiber city against its neighbours, the Romans had not enjoyed such a rest. Prosperity returned to Italy and to the provinces.

The abler citizens, who found politics uneventful,

turned their attention to artistic and literary pursuits. The *Augustan Age* of Latin literature is also called its Golden Age. Many of the most notable writers in the language were attached to the imperial court.



AUGUSTUS CAESAR.

The historian *Livy*, the poets *Virgil* and *Ovid*, are familiar to every Western student.

Augustus wished to govern well the existing empire, rather than to enlarge it by further conquests. In the west the Atlantic, in the south the deserts of Africa and Arabia, in the east the Euphrates, in the

north the Russian steppes and the German forests formed the natural limits of civilization and of empire. The *Germans* in the north-east were a standing menace to the security of Gaul. To strengthen the border, Augustus sent generals across the Rhine, with a view to making a province of the country between the Rhine and the Elbe. The free German warriors could not tolerate foreign rule. They annihilated the Roman legions, as their general *Varus* led them through the forest of *Teutoburg* (A.D. 9). Thereafter the *Rhine* and the *Danube* remained the north-eastern boundary of the empire. For later history this battle of the year nine has a profound significance. Through their victory the Germans remained wholly Germanic, instead of being romanized, like the people of Britain, Gaul, and Spain. The barbarians of the northern forests kept unchanged their strength and their customs. And five centuries later these Germans became the dominant race in Europe.

Another event of world-wide importance fell under the reign of Augustus. *Jesus Christ* was born as the son of a poor carpenter in Bethlehem, a small Jewish town. No contemporary annalist mentioned the event. The great religious teacher lived and died in local obscurity, known only to a few disciples and listeners.

The Julian Emperors (to A.D. 68).—The four following emperors also belonged to the family of Julius Caesar, and are called, together with Augustus, the *Julian* emperors. *Tiberius*, the step-son of Augustus, was a suspicious despot. He gave rewards to

informers, called *delators*, for accusing persons of trifling offences against the emperor. No one could feel sure that the following day might not bring a death warrant for a crime which he had never committed. Nearly half of the reign was conducted by a favourite of Tiberius, *Sejanus*. He was a low fellow, who attained the command of the imperial body-guard, called the *praetorians*. By intrigue and murder Sejanus got the whole government into his hands. When he even plotted to kill the emperor, Tiberius ordered his execution.

The last of the Julian line was *Nero*. He ruled well as long as he followed his teacher, the philosopher Seneca. But his later reign is a story of the foulest crimes and insanest follies. It was probably by his orders that Rome was burned down. Certainly he enjoyed the spectacle of the conflagration. To divert the popular anger from himself, he accused the new sect of the *Christians* of having laid the fire. The unfortunate Christians were nailed to crosses, burned alive, or thrown to the wild animals in the amphitheatre.

The Flavian Emperors (69-96).—After Nero's death four emperors were proclaimed by the legions. The

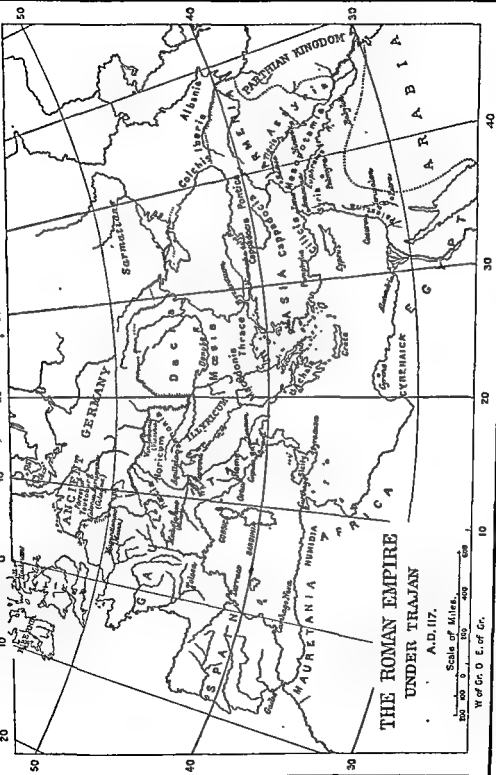


TIBERIUS CAESAR.

fourth, *Flavius Vespasianus*, succeeded in transmitting the throne to his son *Titus*. Titus had already distinguished himself by crushing a revolt of the *Jews*. Jerusalem was destroyed, and the survivors were dispersed (A.D. 70). Titus made himself beloved by his kindness. The people called him 'The Delight of Mankind.' During his short reign of three years occurred an eruption of the volcano Mt. Vesuvius. Two cities, *Pompeii* and *Herculaneum*, were buried by mud and ashes. They have now been in part excavated. Their streets and houses present a faithful picture of a Roman city under the early empire.

The successor of Titus was his brother *Domitian*, a cowardly, cruel despot. He persecuted the Jews and the Christians, because they refused to conform with the national religion. Domitian's tyranny weighed most heavily on the members of his court and household. By some of them he was finally murdered.

The Five Good Emperors (96-180).—The murderers of Domitian raised to the throne an aged senator, named *Nerva*. His rule lasted only two years, but it was notable as introducing a century of the kindest government, and of almost unbroken peace within the empire. Nerva set a splendid example to his successor by reducing the taxes, recalling the exiles of Domitian's persecution, and otherwise advancing the general welfare. He left the throne to his adopted son *Trajan*, a Spaniard by birth (98-117). Trajan had a spirit resembling that of Caesar. He did not bind himself by the defensive policy followed since Octavian's reign, but sought glory in



new conquests. The *Dacians* were becoming dangerous to the empire. Trajan conquered their country, and settled it with Roman colonists, the ancestors of the modern Roumanians. The Roumanian language still resembles Latin quite closely. In the East the empire of the *Parthians* had grown up on the ruins of the old Persian monarchy. The Parthians were a rude and war-like people. Crassus had been defeated and killed by their armies of horsemen. Trajan drove them across the Zagros mountains, and seized all their western territories down to the Persian Gulf.

Trajan's successor, *Hadrian*, abandoned those eastern countries, and made the Euphrates, which offered a stronger line of defence, the Roman boundary. Hadrian was a lover of peace, and an able administrator. He spent the greater part of his reign in inspecting and regulating all the provinces of the empire.

Of the next emperor, *Antoninus Pius*, little need be said, except this highest praise, that his rule was a period of quiet happiness for his subjects. *Marcus Aurelius*, the last of the five good emperors, was a philosopher of the Stoic school. The Stoics believed that a good man should be free from passions, kind and devoted to his duty. This doctrine Marcus Aurelius practised as a ruler. Though he labored incessantly for the benefit of his subjects, he had the sorrow of seeing them afflicted by a deadly plague. The legions returning from war with the Parthians carried the disease to Italy, where entire districts were soon depopulated. At

the same time the *Germans* broke through the defences on the Danube river, and started to plunder northern Italy. The imperial philosopher had to spend his last years in arduous warfare against the barbarians. He died in his military camp on the Danube, having succeeded in protecting his people from the horrors of invasion.

A Century of Decline (180-284).—The ravages of the plague and the expensive border warfare exhausted the resources of the empire. Even the fatherly



COIN OF ANTONINVS PIVS.

government of Marcus Aurelius was unable to prevent various signs of decay. The constant danger from the Germans in the north and from the Parthians in the east forced the emperors to maintain large standing armies. The soldiers gradually got unruly, and finally elected their own favourites as emperors. Often the legions in different provinces chose different imperators, and then the horrors of civil war were added to the threats of the barbarians. The empire was about to fall to pieces, when the emperor *Aurelian* (270-275) and his successors again brought discipline among the soldiers and order into the realm.

The Reign of Diocletian (284-305).—The emperor *Diocletian* abolished the last outward forms of republicanism, which had been preserved since Augustus. He established a court like an oriental monarch at *Nicomedia*, in Asia Minor. To make the government more efficient, he divided the empire into four parts, each of which had its separate ruler. His three colleagues were subordinate to him. This system gave vigour and efficiency to the government; but the four separate courts were too heavy a financial burden for the empire.

Reign of Constantine the Great (323-337).—After the death of Diocletian, his system of four rulers soon led to rivalries and civil war among the emperors. After some years of conflict, *Constantine the Great* emerged as victor over all rivals. He governed as sole emperor, but otherwise he continued and perfected the administrative reforms of Diocletian. The empire was redivided into 116 provinces. All officials were appointed through the emperor, and were responsible to him. They usually got their first appointments by examinations in law, and then advanced through regular grades. Constantine made *Christianity* the state religion, tolerating, however, the pagan creeds. He chose Byzantium as the capital of his realm, and gave it the new name of *Second* or *New Rome*, but it is more commonly called after him, *Constantinople* (= City of Constantine). Rome sank to the level of a large provincial town.

Division of the Empire (A.D. 395).—Since the reign of Diocletian the East and West had already been divided for purposes of administration. The emperors

simply recognized the natural differences existing between the two regions. East of the Adriatic was the Greek and Oriental world, old, highly cultured countries, with Greek language and civilization. Compared with them the Latin West was crude and half barbarous. The West included Italy, Gaul, Spain, and Britain, countries which had all received their language and civilization from Rome. This natural division became permanent after the reign of Theodosius the Great. He assigned to his older son *Arcadius* the East, while he gave to his second son *Honorius* the government of the West.

Fall of the Western Empire (A.D. 476).—The Eastern empire was less exposed to the attacks of the Germans than was Italy and the West. Under the new name of *Byzantine* or *Grecian* empire it lasted over a thousand years longer, until 1453, when Constantinople was taken by the Turks.

In the Western empire Honorius and his successors exercised little more than nominal authority. The Germans continued their attacks with increasing fierceness, until finally the whole West was overrun by them. In the year 476 the last Roman emperor, a helpless puppet, styled *Romulus Augustulus*, was deposed by the German chieftain *Odoacer*, and the latter made himself ruler of Italy.

CHAPTER XV

SOME IMPORTANT TOPICS IN ROMAN HISTORY

THE aim of this chapter is to set before the reader a few important subjects, which could not well be included in the preceding concise treatment of Roman history.

Roman Law.—The most valuable contribution of the Romans to Western civilization is their system of *law*. Written law began, as above stated, with the *Twelve Tables*, which were compiled by a commission of ten men in 451 B.C. From this fixed basis a larger system of law, called Roman Civil Law, was gradually developed. During the later republic, the civil law was strongly influenced by the legal systems of the provinces. Under the empire, the Roman civil law, and the best parts of the laws found throughout the Roman world, were finally welded into one system. Half a century after the fall of the Western empire, the Byzantine emperor Justinian (reigned A.D. 527-565) appointed a commission of jurists, headed by the eminent lawyer *Trebonian*, to arrange and codify the immense mass of existing laws. The result of their labours is known as the '*Corpus Juris Civilis*,' or 'Body of the Civil Law.' This code has earned for Justinian the title of 'The Lawgiver of Civilization.' In nearly all of Europe the '*Corpus Juris Civilis*' is still the basis of private law.

Roman Roads and Colonies.—The Romans carried the art of road-building to greatest perfection. In Italy, and even in England, ancient Roman road beds still form the foundation

of the best highways. When the Romans conquered new territory, they always took care to connect it with the capital by a smooth road, over which troops could march rapidly. Of course, trade benefited also by the opening of these safe and permanent routes.

Another method of securing new conquests' was the establishment of permanent military camps, or of colonies settled with veteran soldiers and needy citizens. As these settlements were generally made in positions of strategic and commercial importance, many of them have remained large towns to the present day. For example the well-known city of *Cologne* on the Rhine started as a Roman frontier post against the Germans, named *Colonia Agrippina*.

Roman Literature, Art, and Architecture.—The higher culture of the Romans was mostly borrowed and adapted from other nations, chiefly from the Greeks. While Roman literature has produced many celebrated works, only few of them attain to the excellence of the Greek models, from which they were imitated. The same is true of Roman sculpture. In architecture Greek examples were sometimes strictly followed. But here the Romans also had a distinct style of their own, composed of Etruscan and Greek elements blended and developed to suit special needs. Public buildings were often remarkable for their beauty, and always for their solidity. Although so many destructive wars have raged on the soil of the former empire, many Roman buildings in Italy, France, and elsewhere, still stand perfect at the present day. The custom of daily bathing led to the erection of immense public baths, and of gigantic aqueducts, artificial channels for bringing pure water from the distant mountains into Rome. Most impressive are the ruins of the Roman *amphitheatres*, which are still standing in various places in France and Italy. The amphitheatre consisted of a great circular or oval enclosure, called the *arena*, and of tiers of seats rising around it. The finest structure of the kind was the *Flavian amphitheatre* (Greek *amphi*=around) or Colosseum, at Rome. It was built by the Flavian

emperors, Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian. 85,000 spectators could witness the games from its benches. Its ruins still present the most imposing sight in the imperial city.

The Shows of the Amphitheatre.—The briefest account of Roman history would be incomplete without mention of the shows of the amphitheatre. From the Etruscans the Romans took over the custom of making soldiers, commonly prisoners of war, fight to the death at funerals. This was believed to be an honourable form of sacrifice in honour of the dead. In course of time such fights became a popular amusement. Under the later republic *gladiatorial* games (*gladi* = sword) were given by special officials. The incident of the war of the gladiators shows what dimensions the sport had taken before the establishment of the empire. Under the emperors the gladiatorial shows became the principal passion of the people. Every important town had its amphitheatre. Men, women, and children deserted their homes to enjoy the sensation of watching skilled fighters being slain by their more skilful opponents. *Wild animal* shows were combined with the games. Tigers, lions, bears, and other fierce beasts were set loose in the arena, to fight one another, or to devour criminals.

The Civilizing Work of the Roman Empire.—A hurried review of Roman history is likely to fail to impress the reader with the valuable civilizing work of Rome. The republican period is filled with wars, with the destruction of great trading cities, and with the plundering of provinces by greedy governors. The annals of the empire show cruel monsters like Nero and Domitian oppressing their subjects. Even the period of the five good emperors closes with a general decline, and is followed by a century of constant warfare among rival claimants for the throne. One might easily get the impression that Roman rule was cruel and harmful.

In fact the works of peace far outweighed the evils of conquest. The first provinces of the republic were honestly governed. Extortion began only in consequence of the

breakdown of the senatorial rule. The reforms of Caesar and of Augustus gave to the provinces a just and efficient government. In most of them life and property were safer, personal wellbeing more general, justice more equitable, than at any previous period in the history of these countries. In Roman Asia the arbitrary rule of despotic princes was succeeded by the impartial administration of governors, who were held to strict account by the emperor. The mutual strife of the Greek cities, the tribal wars of the Gauls and Spaniards, the raids of Germans and Parthians, were all put down with a firm hand. The *Roman Peace* blessed all the lands in the empire. The despotic rule of men like Tiberius and Domitian was little felt in the provinces, where the administrative methods founded by better emperors took their regular course. Rome and the imperial court were the chief sufferers from the whims of insane emperors.

Such was 'the beneficent Roman empire over the whole civilized west,' which Caesar had founded, and Octavian had perfected. The Roman peace reigned almost without interruption until the death of Marcus Aurelius. After a century of disorder, the reforms of Diocletian and Constantine infused new life into the empire, and prolonged its existence for nearly two hundred years.

The western half of this great realm was entirely transformed under Roman guidance. Latin language and culture spread over all Italy, Gaul, Spain, and other countries. In most of them languages are now spoken which are descended from the Latin tongue. The *Romance* languages, as they are called, include Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese.

The Rise of Christianity.—Before the persecution of the Christians under Nero, little is known of the early history of their sect. One naturally wonders why just the Christians should have been picked out as objects of popular hatred and of special punishment by the government. The cause was twofold, being connected with their doctrine and with their organization. Christianity followed Judaism in forbidding the worship of any other god beside the Lord.

Roman law demanded, however, that every loyal subject should worship Jupiter and Caesar. To refuse religious homage to the Caesar was a kind of sedition. The emperor Trajan ordered that the Christians should be treated as leniently as the law would allow, but that they must be punished if convicted. By the middle of the third century Christianity had spread over all the provinces. It had a regular organization and its officers exercised authority over the church members, almost like civil magistrates. The Christian religion thus seemed to build up a state within the state, and was declared by its opponents to be revolutionary. The emperor Decius (249-251) believed that the public welfare depended upon the maintenance of the old Roman state religion. He tried to root out Christianity by a terrible persecution of its adherents. The most determined effort to extirpate the faith was made under Diocletian. For a while all people who refused to worship the Roman gods, were punished with death.

The organization of the Christian Church was largely modelled after the civil government of the empire. Certain high officers, called *patriarchs*, had the highest authority. After the emperor *Constantine* had made Christianity the state religion, the patriarch of Constantinople was recognized as the head of the church in the East. In the West, the *bishops of Rome* rose to great influence. During the troublous times before and after the deposition of Romulus Augustulus, Rome was often left without protection, and without regular government. The people then looked to the bishop for guidance in political as well as religious matters, because he was always there when other authorities failed. The Western world was so accustomed to accepting commands from Rome, that the Roman bishops were naturally regarded as higher than the others. These and other causes combined to place the bishops, later called *Popes*, at the head of the Church in the West.

PART II

MEDIAEVAL HISTORY, 375-1492.

(FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE MIGRATIONS OF THE
TEUTONIC TRIBES TO THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.)

Introduction.—The convenient arrangement of history into sharply-divided periods does not mean that such exact divisions actually occurred. They are made by historians, in order to afford a better grasp of the great subject by cutting it into smaller parts. When the Visigoths crossed the lower Danube, their migration affected only a section of the Eastern empire. Elsewhere the daily life of the people remained unchanged. Looking back from modern times, however, we recognize that the first successful invasion of Roman territory by the Germans marked the beginning of a movement which gradually transformed Europe. Therefore the date A.D. 375 is chosen as the commencement of the Middle Ages. Many historians prefer A.D. 476, the date of the deposition of the last Western emperor.

In 1492 Columbus discovered some of the West Indian islands. Many people in Europe did not even hear of this event. But it led to many other voyages of exploration, and so proved to be the first in a series of events which changed the face of the globe. The year 1492 is therefore quite generally chosen to mark the beginning of modern history.



COLUMBUS.

CHAPTER XVI

GERMANIC HISTORY TO THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE

Early Migrations of the Teutonic Tribes.—Of the *Germans* or *Teutons* we have no certain knowledge before their first migratory movement at the close of the second century before Christ. The Cimbri and

Teutones,¹ who were searching for new homes in the south, were annihilated by Marius. Caesar stopped a German invasion of Gaul. Augustus lost an army in the attempt to subjugate the country east of the Rhine. During the first centuries of the Christian era the Teutonic tribes made frequent attempts to break across the Roman boundary. Their numbers were growing too great for their wild country. Marcus Aurelius died while defending the Danube frontier. After him the emperors tried to ward off the danger by taking Germanic warriors into the Roman legions, and by allowing whole tribes to settle in the border provinces.

The Huns.—During the fourth century after Christ, the *Huns* wandered westward into the steppes between the Caspian Sea and the Ural mountains. The Huns were nomads, of Mongolian race. They have been identified as descendants of the Hiong-nu, who ravaged northern China during the Han Dynasty (B.C. 206-A.D. 25), and against whom Shih Hwang-ti (B.C. 246-221) had built the Great Wall. In A.D. 375 the Huns crossed the Volga river and attacked the *Ostrogoths*, a Germanic tribe then dwelling north of the Black Sea. The Ostrogoths (= eastern Goths) joined forces with the Huns and fell upon the Visigoths (= western Goths), whose settlements extended into Dacia, north of the lower Danube.

The Migration of Nations.—The Visigoths, with permission of the emperor at Constantinople, crossed the Danube. They came with their wives and

¹ Distinguish the racial name 'Teut'ons,' meaning ancient Germans, or Germanic peoples, from the tribal name 'Teut'onēs.'

children, as a whole nation. Thus began the great migration of Germanic nations, which soon put the whole empire at the mercy of the barbarians, and which ended with the establishment of Germanic kingdoms on the ruins of the Western Roman empire.

The Visigoths.—The Visigoths soon found a bold leader in their young king *Alaric*. The Eastern emperor, Arcadius, saved his realm from destruction by directing the Goths against Italy. In 410 Alaric plundered Rome, sparing only the Christian churches, for the Goths were themselves Christians. Having conquered all Italy, Alaric planned to invade Africa. But his victorious career was cut short by his death. His successors established a Visigothic kingdom in southern Gaul. In the year 507 they retreated into Spain, having been defeated by the Frankish king Clovis. The Gothic kingdom in Spain, with Toledo as capital, lasted until its conquest by the Saracens in 711.

The Ostrogoths.—In 493 *Theodoric the Great*, king of the East Goths, overthrew the German Odoacer, who had set himself up as ruler over Italy. Theodoric governed well, and treated his Italian subjects kindly. He was the most powerful monarch of his time. The Ostrogothic kingdom might have lasted long after his death, had it not been that in 555 *Narses*, a general sent by the Byzantine emperor Justinian, destroyed the remnants of the East Gothic nation, and made Italy a province of the Greek empire.

The Vandals in Africa (429-534).—When Alaric invaded Italy, all the Roman legions were withdrawn from Britain and from the Rhine for the defence

of Rome. Various German tribes at once poured into the unprotected provinces. The *Vandals* marched through Gaul and Spain into Africa. There they founded a kingdom, with Carthage for its capital, which lasted over a century. In 455 a Vandal expedition landed at the mouth of the Tiber, and plundered Rome for two weeks. Since then an act of wanton destruction has been called *Vandalism*. The emperor Justinian, through his general *Belisarius*, destroyed the Vandal nation, and united Africa with the eastern empire (534).

The Angles and Saxons in Britain.—From North Germany two pagan tribes, called the *Angles and Saxons*, invaded Britain during the close of the century. The Romanized Britons offered obstinate resistance, and could only be driven back step by step. The bitterness of the struggle led to the extinction of the British race and of Roman civilization on the island. After one hundred years, when the conquest was completed, the Roman, Christian island of Britain had been changed into Germanic, pagan *England*, the land of the Angles or Engles. Only Scotland, Wales, and Cornwall kept their ancient Celtic population behind the shelter of their mountains.

The Lombards in Italy (568-774).—The German *Lombards* crossed the Alps soon after the fall of the Ostrogothic kingdom, and gradually made themselves masters of nearly all Italy. The kingdom established by their leader *Alboin* lasted until its overthrow by Charles the Great, in A.D. 774. The name *Lombardy* has since then adhered to the Po valley.

The Hunnic Invasion of Europe.—The Huns were

in every way different from the Germans. The latter were large men with fair skin, reddish or blond hair, long beards, and big blue eyes. They fought on foot, and they thought it was shameful to turn one's back on the enemy. The Huns were small of stature, with the yellow complexion, the coarse black hair, the thin beards, and small, dark eyes typical of most Mongolian peoples. They lived and fought on the backs of their shaggy Mongolian ponies. Their sudden attack with a shower of arrows was followed by an equally sudden retreat. The Roman and German soldiers were quite helpless in the face of an enemy whom they could not reach. It is interesting to note that these first Mongolian invaders of Europe made the same impression on the people, as the first blue-eyed English did on the Chinese. Most exaggerated stories were told about the terrible 'black devils.' For centuries European nurses frightened their children by saying: "The Huns will take you."

The popular fear of the Huns was well grounded. They were not home-seekers, like the Germans, but were only bent on murder and pillage. One of their chiefs, *Attila*, planned to establish a Hunnic empire in the West. Taking the plains of the middle Danube as his central territory, he started to overrun Europe. The Byzantine emperors saved themselves by heavy annual tributes. In the year 451 Attila led his horse-men into Gaul. He was defeated in a terrible battle near *Chalons*, in which the Visigoths and Romans joined against the common foe. In the following year Attila ravaged northern Italy. The people of

Venetia fled before him on to some islands at the head of the Adriatic, where they laid the foundations of *Venice*. In 453 Attila died—his enemies said from overdrinking at a feast. With him all definite political aims left the Huns. They dispersed, and no one knows what has become of them.

The Kingdom of the Franks.—The Franks were among the German tribes which crossed the Rhine early in the fifth century. A branch of them settled in what is now north-eastern France. Others remained on the right bank of the Rhine. The Franks were raised to a commanding position by a great man, the chieftain *Clovis*, who ruled as king of the Franks from 481-511. Clovis was cruel and unprincipled, but he was also strong in body and mind. In those unruly times strength was the quality most needed in a king. By war, murder, and deceit he made himself supreme within his own family, and over the surrounding countries. He adopted Roman Catholic Christianity, and made his subjects embrace the same faith. Of course the rude pagans did not at once practise the gentle and peaceable manners prescribed by Christ, but kept the violent spirit natural to their race. Clovis at once set himself up as a special guardian of Catholic Christianity. He attacked the Visigoths, and drove them out of southern Gaul. The Frankish kingdom now extended over the whole of Gaul, and included the western part of Germany. After the death of Clovis his descendants, called the *Merovingians*, ruled over the Franks for more than a century and a half. Their annals are filled with murders and barbarities of every sort. The Franks became the best friends

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Charles the Great (Charlemagne) (A.D. 768-814).—Charles the Great, the son of Pipin, raised the Frankish kingdom to the height of its power. He enlarged his dominions by numerous campaigns in all directions. In the south-west he tore the territory between the Pyrenees and the river Ebro from the grasp of the Arabs, and erected it into the *Spanish March*. A quarrel with the Lombard king *Desiderius* he ended by locking the latter up in a monastery, and placing on his own head the iron crown of the Lombard kings. His most determined foes were the *Saxons*, a pagan German tribe dwelling between the Rhine and the Elbe. They rose many times against the Frankish invader, the oppressor of their liberty and of their cherished faith. At last Charles in his anger ordered the decapitation of 4500 Saxons. Even this severity did not break their heroic patriotism. Charles had to deport many Saxons, and to settle Frankish colonists in their place, before the brave people accepted him as sovereign, and Christianity as their religion.

Excepting the English, Charlemagne united under his rule all the Germanic peoples of Western Europe. His plan was to found a *Germanic world empire*, modelled somewhat after the ancient Roman empire. For this purpose he had himself crowned as emperor in Rome, in the year 800.

At that time Italy nominally was still under the authority of the eastern emperor. But the weak Byzantine government could neither protect Italy against the Lombards, nor maintain its authority over the Popes. On the contrary, the Roman Church was about to sever its connection with Constantinople, on account of some violent religious disputes,

of the Popes, to whom they were able to give military support, and the latter in turn used their religious influence in favour of the Frankish monarchs.

The Mayors of the Palace.—The last Merovingians are known as the ‘Do-nothing kings,’ on account of their indolence. Their power fell into the hands of ministers, called ‘mayors of the palace.’ During the seventh century the office of these ministers became hereditary in the famous family of the *Carolingians*. One of them, Charles Martel (=the hammer), so called for his prowess in battle, did an invaluable service to Europe by stopping the advance of the Arabs. They had overthrown the Visigothic kingdom, and occupied southern Gaul. Their further success would have extinguished the Germanic, Christian states of Western Europe. In the great battle between *Tours and Poitiers* (A.D. 732), Charles Martel’s victory saved Germanic civilization. Charles’ son, *Pipin*, deposed the last Merovingian king, and assumed the royal title himself. In his usurpation of the throne he was aided by the Pope, who said that the man who actually performed the duties of the king should also bear the title. The Popes claimed to be the representatives of God on earth, and the Western Christians acknowledged the claim. In return for the Pope’s services the new Frankish king punished his enemies, the Lombards, and gave to him a part of their lands in central Italy. Thus was laid the foundation of the *Papal States*. Henceforth the Popes, who had exercised only spiritual (priestly) authority, were also temporal rulers.

which finally led to the complete separation of the Greek Catholic from the Roman Catholic Church.¹ The Romans even claimed, as a contemporary chronicle says, "that the name of Emperor had ceased among the Greeks," because "*among them the Empire was held by a woman called Irene, who had by guile laid hold on her son the Emperor and put out his eyes, and taken the Empire to herself.*" The conception of the Roman Empire however, and the respect for the imperial name, were still strong among the people, and it seemed proper to them that the man holding the actual power of the former Caesars in the west should also bear their title.

On Christmas day, in the church of St. Peter at Rome, Pope Leo III. placed a golden crown on the Frankish king's head, and proclaimed him emperor of the Romans. Thus was established the 'Holy Roman Empire,' which lasted until its abolition by Napoleon in 1806. The Byzantine emperors continued to regard themselves as the real Roman emperors, quite ignoring the German rulers of the West, until the Eastern Roman empire was overthrown by the Turks in 1453.

Charlemagne's Use of the Christian Church.—Charles wished to unify and to civilize the countries under his government. The Franks, Lombards, Saxons, and other German peoples were still very rude and violent. The ancient Germans valued personal independence above all else, and were intolerant of well-regulated authority. Every freeman liked to be his own master. Society therefore tended to fall into disorder. Now the Roman church was a well-organized institution, resting on the traditions of old Roman law. It was

¹The present Greek Catholic religion of Russia and the Balkan States is quite distinct from Roman Catholicism, although the two religions are very similar.

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the only civilizing force available against the unruly spirit of the times. Charlemagne saw in the Church a ready instrument for his plans of empire. He erected new bishoprics, built many churches, and forced his pagan subjects to accept the Christian faith. In connection with the churches he opened the first *schools* in mediaeval Europe. The foremost scholars of the time were gathered at Charles' court.

Failure of Charlemagne's Plans.—Charles was supreme over all Western Europe during his lifetime. But he failed to establish a united and dominant German Nation. His subjects were not ripe for the feeling of a great nationality. Every noble in the land wished to be an independent lord, and most of them preferred blind violence to law and order. From without, also, came attacks by the *Slavic* peoples from the East, and by the *Northmen* from the northern seas. Charles had hardly died when all these forces of disorder undid much of his life work. The *dark ages* of Europe had yet to continue for several centuries.

The Treaty of Verdun (A.D. 843).—After a series of wars three grandsons of Charlemagne divided the empire among themselves, by the celebrated treaty of Verdun. A broad strip running from Italy to the North Sea was given to *Lothar*, who was emperor. The eastern part fell to *Ludwig the German*. His dominions were the beginning of Germany. The western section, inhabited mostly by Romance people, was ruled by *Charles the Bald*. Its language, descended from Latin, developed into the French tongue, and its people became the French nation.

CHAPTER XVII

THE SPREAD OF ISLAM

Causes of the Arab Success.—The Romans had always regarded the north and the east as the two points of danger to their dominions ; but in the seventh century Europe was amazed by the appearance of a new and mighty power from an unexpected quarter, the south. The extraordinary rapidity with which the power of the Arabs spread after the death of the Prophet in 632 has no parallel in history, and can only be accounted for by a variety of causes, of which the following are the chief : (1) The wonderful faith, valour and daring which the Prophet's doctrines inspired in his followers ; (2) the weak and disunited state of Christianity at this time ; (3) the fact that the two greatest powers which the Arabs had to encounter, the Eastern Empire and Persia, were exhausted by the long and fierce wars of the Emperor Heraclius ; (4) that the Vandals *in Carthage* and the Visigoths *in Spain*, once hardy Teutonic races, had become enfeebled since their occupation of these countries.

Conquests of Abu Bakr and Omar.—The Arab conquests began almost immediately after the death of the Prophet. The first Khalif, Abu Bakr, aided by

the great warrior, Khaled, whom the Prophet had called "The Sword of God," at once set himself to subdue the rebellious tribes in Arabia and to convert the whole country to Islam. When this was done, Khaled passed northwards into Mesopotamia, where he gained a victory over the Persians. In the following year (634), at the battle of Waqusah in Syria, he defeated an army which the Emperor Heraclius had sent against the Arabs.

On the death of Abu Bakr, Omar became Khalif, and the ten years of his reign are famous for a series of brilliant victories, by which the Arab power was extended in all directions. By defeating the Persians at Qadesiyah in 635 the Arabs made themselves the masters of Mesopotamia, and in order to ensure the permanency of this conquest they founded the two cities of Basrah and Kufah, which were soon to become important in Moslem history. At the same time the great cities of Syria—Damascus, Antioch, and Jerusalem—were captured, though the last-named refused to open her gates to the conquerors until Omar himself came from Madinah to receive her surrender.

Conquest of Egypt (640).—The greatest achievement of Omar's reign, however, was the conquest of Egypt by 'Amr ibn al 'As. Since the death of Cleopatra, the last of the Ptolemies, in 30 B.C., Egypt had been a Roman province, and after the fall of the Western Empire it remained the most valuable possession still in the hands of the Emperor of Constantinople. It is strange therefore that the Romans did not make a more determined effort to retain it, especially after

they had seen from the loss of Syria how formidable their new enemies were. But the Emperor Heraclius was dying, and having failed in Syria he probably felt that it was useless to make any further resistance against warriors whose ambition was to die in the moment of victory.

In December 639, 'Amr invaded the Delta with a small force of 4000 men. He first captured Belbeis and then attacked the Roman fortress of Babylon, a northern extension of the ancient Memphis, which at that time still existed. The fortress was strongly defended, and 'Amr was obliged to wait for reinforcements, which brought his total strength up to 12,000. A battle was fought at Heliopolis, in which the Romans were defeated, and after a siege of seven months Babylon was taken. After this 'Amr encountered no further opposition. Alexandria, the capital, surrendered and agreed to pay tribute. The conquest of Egypt was complete.

For a thousand years Alexandria had been the capital of Egypt, and it was the intention of 'Amr that it should remain so. Omar, however, considered that the Arab headquarters should be on the eastern side of the Nile, from which there could be unbroken land communication with Syria and Arabia. Accordingly 'Amr returned to Memphis and founded the city of Al Fostat on the site where Old Cairo now stands.

'Amr was the first Arab governor of Egypt. Under him the Copts and Romans were treated with toleration, being allowed to keep their religion on condition that they paid a moderate tribute.

During the conquest of Egypt, the armies of the

Khalif had been penetrating from Basrah and Kufah far into Persia. Here again no leader was found able to withstand them, and in 642 the King Yezdegerd fled from the country after the decisive battle of Nehavend, leaving Persia and the road to India and Central Asia open to the conquerors.

The Umayyads (661-750).—The first great period of Arab expansion practically ended with the death of Omar in 644. Othman and Ali, the Khalifs who succeeded Omar, were obliged to give most of their attention to internal difficulties. Othman was murdered by his countrymen, and Ali, after a reign of five years cursed by civil war, met with the same fate. The people of Kufah proclaimed Ali's son, Hasan, Khalif; while at Damascus the Umayyad, Moawiah, who had been Ali's great opponent, was chosen. After a few months Hasan abdicated in favour of his more powerful rival, and the Arab dominions were reunited under a strong ruler.

The dynasty which Moawiah founded in 661 reigned at Damascus for the next ninety years. The new capital was without doubt far better fitted to be the centre of government of so vast an Empire than either Madinah or Kufah, the capitals of the previous Khalifs, especially as it was Moawiah's great ambition to extend his dominions northward by the capture of Constantinople. Although he failed in this, Moawiah greatly increased his possessions. To the east, his brother Zeyad drove the Turks from Khorasan and conquered Bokhara; while to the west, Oqbah, having founded the city of Qayrowan, to the south of the ancient Carthage, advanced as far as the Atlantic.

This latter conquest, however, was not yet final, for on his return Oqbah was surrounded by the Berbers and defeated. It was not till the reign of Abd ul-Malek (685-705) that the Berbers were entirely subdued, and the whole of Northern Africa brought under the sway of the Khalif.

The Umayyad dynasty reached the zenith of its power in the reign of Al Walid (705-715), when the Arab Empire was extended to its furthest limits. The generals of this Khalif pushed their conquests as far east as the city of Samarkand and the river Indus. From Morocco Tareq crossed to Spain and defeated the Visigoths at the battle of Zeres (711), and although forbidden to follow up his success by his superior officer, Musa, he disobeyed the instructions, with the result that the whole country was conquered for the Khalif.

While his generals were showing in remote parts of the Empire the greatness of the Arabs in war, Al Walid was busily occupied at home with the arts of peace. He was a man of great artistic taste, and delighted in beautifying his cities with costly mosques. He may be called the founder of Arab architecture, which was a union of the Greek and Persian styles. The greatest of his works was the Amawy Mosque at Damascus.

On the death of Al Walid a rapid decline set in. The time of great conquests was over. A second attempt was made by Suleiman, the son of Al Walid, to capture Constantinople, but again the Arabs were unable to contend against the terrible Greek fire which burnt almost all their ships. The Arab inroads

from Spain into France were finally stopped in 732 by Charles Martel, the grandfather of Charlemagne, at the decisive battle of Poitiers, and though the Arabs remained in Andalusia until 1484, they never again attempted to conquer France. The internal situation was deplorable. The history of the remaining Umayyad Khalifs is one of constant civil war. Finally, the standard of revolt was raised by Abd Allah, Abu l-'Abbas, more commonly known as As-Saffah, who was descended from an uncle of the Prophet. He had a strong following in Khorasan, where he had been waiting for an opportunity to seize the Khalifate. In 750 the last of the Umayyad Khalifs, Marwan II., was routed at the river Zab. Three months later As-Saffah entered Damascus and was proclaimed Khalif. Marwan fled to Egypt, but was followed and killed. A general massacre of the Umayyads ensued, from which only one escaped. This was Abd-ur-Rahman, the founder of the independent Umayyad Khalifate of Cordova.

The Abbasids (750-1258).—As-Saffah did not live long to enjoy the fruits of his victory, but his descendants reigned for the next five centuries, and even when stripped of all power they continued to hold the title of Khalif under the protection of the Mamluks of Egypt, until, in 1517, that country was conquered by Salim I., and the title passed to the Ottoman Sultan. Al Mansur, the second Khalif of the line, founded the city of Baghdad on the Tigris, and made it his capital, so that once more the seat of the Khalifate was changed. Baghdad soon became the most gorgeous city in the world. The rapid change which

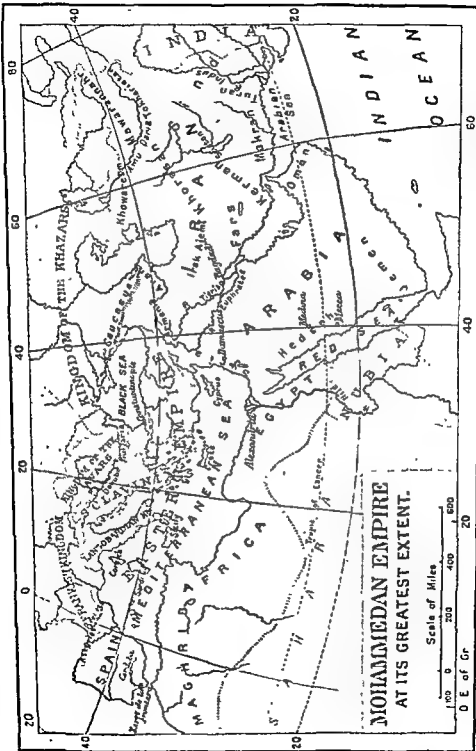
had taken place in the Arab mode of living is remarkable. The Prophet and the first four Khalifs had lived the most frugal lives with that contempt for luxury that characterized the early Romans; but as in the case of the latter, conquest and riches brought with them a love of pomp and ceremony, of greater physical comfort, and of magnificent and costly surroundings. The change dates from the reign of Moawiah, and reached its culminating point in the time of Harun ar-Rashid (786-809) and his son Al Mamun (813-833), under whom *not only luxury but also a passion for literature, art, and philosophy* existed in a degree almost unequalled in the history of the world.

It has already been mentioned that a separate Khalifate had been founded in Spain, so that the Arab dominions were no longer united under one ruler as they had been in the reign of Al Walid. After Al Mamun disunion became general throughout the Empire. Powerful governors, such as Ahmad ibn Tulun in Egypt, made themselves independent. In Tunis there arose the Shi'i Khalifate of the Fatimids, who were soon by the conquest of Egypt and Syria to outshine the power of the Sunni Khalifs. The sway of the later Abbasids scarcely extended outside the city of Baghdad, and even there it was a sway which existed only in name, for the Khalifs became mere puppets in the hands of their Turkish bodyguard. In 1055 Baghdad was captured by the Seljuk Sultan, Togrul Beg. The Khalifs lost even the pretence of temporal power, though they were still regarded as the religious heads. Baghdad was no longer a ruling city, but only a part of the Seljuk Empire. The end came

in 1258 when the Mongols under Hulagu, the grandson of the great Jenghiz Khan, sacked the city and slew most of the Abbasid family, one of whom, however, like Marwan II., escaped to Egypt and, as already stated, preserved his title there.

Mohammedan Conquest of India.—About fifteen years after the prophet's death an Arabian naval expedition landed on the Bombay coast. Subsequent attacks on India were repelled by the desperate valour of the Hindu warriors. Meanwhile Islam spread among the fierce mountain tribes of Afghanistan. Their king Mahmud (1001-1030) led seventeen invasions into India, and reduced the western Punjab to a Mohammedan province of Afghanistan. Two hundred years later another Afghan ruler, named *Mohammad of Ghor*, conquered all northern India from the delta of the Indus to that of the Ganges. By the year 1306 all India had fallen under the sway of a Mohammedan Sultan ruling at *Delhi*. Large numbers of Turkish and Afghan Mohammedans settled in the northern parts of the country.

The House of Tughlak (1320-1414); Decline of the Early Delhi Empire.—From 1320 to 1414 the Dynasty of Tughlak, founded by a rebel who had started life as a slave, upheld the Mohammedan rule in Delhi. The second sovereign of this house, Mohammad Tughlak, was an able and ambitious monarch. He sent a large expedition, said to have consisted of 100,000 men, against China, where the Mongolian Yuan Dynasty was already sorely troubled by revolts. But the army perished in the terrible mountain passes of the Himalayas.



MOHAMMEDAN EMPIRE AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT.

Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
0 E of Gr 20 40 60

The Delhi Sultans were in perpetual danger from insurrections of their own generals and of the dissatisfied Hindu races. At the same time new Mohammedan invasions from Central Asia swept through the north-western mountain passes. Just as the weak Roman emperors had enrolled German fighters in their legions, so the Delhi Sultans sought safety from the Mongol (Mughal) hordes by employing them as mercenaries. The empire of Delhi finally broke up into numerous smaller Mohammedan and Hindu states. There was no great central power left to resist the Mongol invasion under Baber (1526). (See Ch. XX.)

Present Number of Mohammedans in India.—Of the 300 million people now living in India, 60 million, or one fifth, are Mohammedans. They are mostly descendants of the invaders, and are at many points antagonistic to the dominant Hindu population.

The Spread of Mohammedanism into China.—Arabian merchants came to Canton as early as the seventh and eighth centuries. Through them Islam was first introduced in China. Under the Mongol emperors, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, large numbers of Turkish and Tartar Moslems entered Kansu and Shensi from the north-west. They gradually spread their faith to most parts of the northern provinces. The 'Huei Huei' are estimated to number from twenty to thirty millions.

CHAPTER XVIII

EGYPT FROM THE ARAB TO THE OTTOMAN CONQUEST

The Arab Governors.—For 200 years after the Arab Conquest, Egypt was ruled by governors appointed by the Khalifs. The Arabs at first formed only a small part of the total population, nor did Islam at once become the religion of the country. In 732, however, 5000 Arabs were brought over to colonize the Delta in order to increase the Moslem population. Most of the clerical and architectural work of the country was carried on by the Copts, who in return for their services were left free to observe their religion and customs. The Umayyad governors lived at Al Fostat, but the representatives of the Abbasids founded a new suburb known as Al Askar, to the north-east of the capital of 'Amr.

In 815 a party of Spanish Arabs who had been driven out of Cordova by the Umayyad Al Hakem captured Alexandria. Nine years later Abd Allah ibn Taher was sent by Al Mamun to retake the city. He at once showed his honesty by refusing the enormous bribe which the Spaniards offered him, and after a siege of fourteen days he was victorious. The

Spaniards retired to Crete. Ibn Taher was one of the best of the Arab governors. He encouraged education, and is still celebrated for having restored the mosque of 'Amr.

A rebellion among the Copts in 832 was important enough to bring Al Mamun himself to Egypt. The result was disastrous for the Copts, who lost the comfort they had hitherto enjoyed and were now degraded by many petty and humiliating regulations.

The last of the Arab governors was Anbasah, who is noted for his successful defence of Egypt against two enemies. The Romans who attacked Damietta in 853 were driven back to their ships, and the Sudanese King, Ali Baba, who led an army northward in the following year, was defeated and forced to pay tribute.

Ahmad Ibn Tulun (868-884).—In 868 Ahmad Ibn Tulun, the son of a Turkish slave, was appointed Deputy-Governor of Egypt. The date is an important one in Egyptian history, for it marks the severance of the connection between the Khalifate and the Valley of the Nile. Ibn Tulun came to Egypt a poor man, but he was strong, just and ambitious. He refused all bribes, though he was badly in need of money. On becoming governor, he made his power absolute by turning all his enemies out of the country. The power of the Abbasids was at this time declining. Dissensions nearer home made it impossible for the Khalif to interfere with his great governor. The result was that Ibn Tulun became a practically independent prince, coining his own money in Egypt and Syria, and more powerful than his former master.

He lived in a new palace on the Moqattam hills surrounded with luxury and splendour equal to that of Harun himself. The famous mosque which he built in Cairo still bears his name.

Ibn Tulun was succeeded by his son Khamarawayh, a prince who had all the extravagance but little of the greatness of his father. He lost much of his wealth by the colossal dowry which he paid when his daughter married the Khalif Al Mu'tadid.

The Tulunid dynasty came to an end in 905. For a short time the country was once more under the sway of Baghdad, but in 935 another Turkish governor, Mohammad al Ikhshid, made himself independent, and after his death Egypt was ably ruled by the Abyssinian Kafur, a great patron of literature and art.

The Fatimids (969-971).—Ever since the death of Hosayn, the son of Ali, there had been a growing party of Moslems who considered both the Umayyad and the Abbasid Khalifs to be usurpers. At the end of the ninth century, when the Abbasids had lost their power, this sect of the Shi'ah, as it is called, grew in strength, and in 910 Obayd Allah, who declared that he was a descendant of Ali and Fatemah, proclaimed himself Khalif at Qayrowan, at the same time seizing the African and Mediterranean possessions of the Aghlabid dynasty, which had for a century ruled in Tunis.

The fourth Fatimid Khalif, Al Mo'ezz, a man of great ability and intelligence, after making himself master of Sicily, sent his general Gawhar in 969 to conquer Egypt. Kafur had just died, and the Egyptians offered but slight resistance. As in the time of 'Amr, Alexandria surrendered immediately,

and Gawhar, after gaining a victory at Gizah, laid the foundations of Cairo on the same night. Besides the walls of the new city and a palace for Al Mo'ezz, Gawhar also built the great mosque of Al Azhar, which was converted by Al Aziz, the second Fatimid Khalif of Egypt, into the free university which still exists. In 972 Al Mo'ezz made Cairo his capital, and became the first of the Fatimid Khalifs who ruled Egypt for the next two centuries. His authority was felt from the Atlantic to the Syrian Desert. Even in Arabia he was recognized as Khalif, the name of the Abbasid ruler being struck out of the Friday Khotbah.

The most famous of the Fatimids was Al Hakem, the son of Al Aziz (996-1021). He was only eleven years old at the time of his father's death, but three years later he had the regent murdered, and so at the age of fourteen took the government into his own hands. His cruelty and fanaticism were without equal even in the Middle Ages. Christians and Jews were degraded and persecuted. Sunnis were killed. He loved the darkness, and did his best to turn night into day, for by his order all business was carried on after sunset. One of his favourite pastimes was to act as his own spy, that he might personally discover those of his subjects who broke any of his outrageous laws. Towards the end of his reign he went mad, and thought himself divine. Egypt groaned under his oppression, until at last on one of his nightly rides to the Moqattam hills he disappeared and was never seen again.

After the reign of Al Hakem there was a decline

in the power of the Fatimid Khalifs exactly similar to the Abbasid decline after the reign of Al Mamun. The African and Mediterranean Empire broke up. The Khalifs spent their time in amusement, leaving affairs of state to viziers, who were generally foreigners. In 1072 Egypt was nearly ruined by a terrible famine, during which both rich and poor died of starvation. The prosperity of the country was restored by an Armenian named Badr al-Gamaly, the greatest of the Fatimid viziers.

The conquest of Syria by the Seljuk Turks in the eleventh century was a great blow to the Fatimids, for it not only robbed them of a great part of their dominions, but it led to the Crusades and the establishment of a hostile Christian kingdom at Jerusalem. In the middle of the twelfth century Egypt was divided by two viziers, Dergham and Shawir, who were at war with each other. Shawir, helped by Nur ad-Din, the great Kurdish ruler of Damascus, was victorious; but on his joining the Crusaders against Nur ad-Din's general Shirquh, Nur ad-Din sent his nephew Salah ad-Din against him. Shawir then deserted the Crusaders, who were driven out of Egypt by Salah ad-Din. Shawir was killed, and Shirquh, after being appointed vizier by Nur ad-Din, died of old age. Thus Salah ad-Din became the ruler of Egypt as the representative of his uncle. As he was a Sunni it was impossible that the Fatimid Khalifate should continue, and so two years later, in 1171, when the Khalif Al 'Aded died, the Shi'i rule in Egypt came to an end, and the religious supremacy of Baghdad was once more recognized.

The Ayyubids (1171-1250).—Salah ad-Din was the founder of the Ayyubid dynasty which ruled Egypt for eighty years. On the death of his uncle he became Sultan of Egypt, and in a very short time his rule extended as far as the Euphrates. As the champion of Islam, and as a model of bravery and chivalry, his name is respected equally by Moslems and Christians. He reigned as independent Sultan for 18 years, and though most of this time was spent in fighting out of Egypt, he succeeded in making numerous improvements in the government and condition of the Egyptians. Besides his great work, the citadel of Cairo, he founded hospitals and schools, in which students from other countries were received with the greatest hospitality. Under him Egypt regained her connection with the other centres of Moslem culture, a connection which had been severed during the two centuries of Shi'i rule.

The empire of Salah ad-Din, which was composed of Egypt, Syria, and Asia Minor, was divided after his death, but was reunited by his brother Sayf ad-Din, a worthy successor to the great hero. In the reign of Al Kamel, the son of Sayf ad-Din, the Crusaders occupied Damietta for two years. After a great deal of fighting Al Kamel forced them to quit. Later in his reign he made a treaty with the Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II., who had led a Crusade to Syria. These two rulers seem to have had much in common, and were probably the most tolerant and broad-minded men of their time. They considered that it was useless to fight if one could gain one's object by amicable agreement.

The Bahry Mamluks, so-called from the fact that they were quartered on the island of Rodah, were brought into Egypt by the Sultan As-Saleh, the son of Al Kamel, to form the royal bodyguard. These Mamluks, or Turkish slaves, were the chief fighting force of the country, and were destined soon to become its rulers. They showed splendid bravery in defeating the Crusaders under the French King Louis IX. at Mansurah. When As-Saleh died the Government was carried on for a short time by his widow, Shagarat ad-Dorr, a woman of great ability; but on her assassination by the ladies of the court the Ayyubid dynasty came to an end, and Egypt was ruled by the Mamluks.

The Bahry Mamluks (1250-1382).—The Bahry Mamluks are celebrated for their victories against the Mongols and the Crusaders. The four greatest of them were Baybars, Qalawon, An-Naser and Hasan. Baybars had led the Mamluks at the battle of Mansurah. His bravery and skill as a general made his fame in Egypt for many generations second only to that of Salah ad-Din. After murdering various rivals he became Sultan of Egypt in 1260. Baghdad had just been taken by the Mongols, and it was Baybars who invited one of the Abbasid family to Cairo, where, as has already been said, the Khalifate continued in name until the Ottoman Conquest.

The remaining Bahry Mamluks belonged to the family of Qalawon. The most important of them was An-Naser, who had three separate reigns, being twice deposed. Under this shrewd ruler, whose power extended from Tunis to the Tigris, Egypt enjoyed

great prosperity. The Sultan Hasan is famous for the great mosque at the foot of the citadel of Cairo.

The Borjy Mamluks (1382-1517).—In 1382 a Circassian named Barquk usurped the throne from the last of the Bahry dynasty, thereby founding a new line of Sultans, known as the Borjy, or Citadel, Mamluks. No change was made in the government of the country, but the succession ceased to be hereditary. With two exceptions the new Sultans were not Turks like their predecessors, but Circassians. Their policy was to rule more by cunning than by force. In spite of this, a great deal of fighting and internal disturbance took place, but the Borjids defended Egypt against foreign invasion, and even conquered Cyprus from the Christians. The chief Borjy Mamluks were Barquk, Burs Bey, Keyt Bey the great builder, Al-Ghury, and Tuman Bey II.

The Ottoman Conquest (1517).—Constantinople had been taken by the Ottoman Turks in 1453, and the rapid expansion of this new power was viewed with anxiety by the Mamluks, who saw that their Syrian frontier was in danger. In 1485 they were successful in a war against the Ottoman Sultan Bayazid II., but the conquests of his warlike son Salim I. from the Persians brought the Turkish and Egyptian dominions into even closer contact, and made war inevitable. The Mamluk Al-Ghury, determined to be ready for his opponents, waited with his army in the neighbourhood of Aleppo for any hostile act on the part of the Sultan. There can be no doubt, however, that the Mamluks wanted war, for by insulting the Ottoman ambassadors they made negotiations impossible. A battle

was fought at Marg Dabek (1516), in which Al-Ghury was defeated and slain. Tuman Bey II., who succeeded him, did his utmost to save Egypt, but another Ottoman victory at Raydaniyah, close to Cairo, enabled Salim to occupy the capital. Here, however, there was a desperate three-day battle in the streets, which was only ended by the basest treachery. A Mamluk traitor, Khayr Bey, advised Salim to offer terms of surrender to the Mamluk chiefs, and when they were accepted not only 800 leaders but 50,000 citizens of Cairo were massacred in cold blood. Tuman was put to death, and Egypt became a Turkish province.

CHAPTER XIX

EUROPEAN HISTORY FROM THE TREATY OF VERDUN TO THE CLOSE OF THE CRUSADES (843-1270)

The Northmen.—The ancient Germanic dwellers in Denmark and Scandinavia are known as Northmen, Norsemen, or Scandinavians. In their far northern homes these wild men remained long untouched by the civilizing influence of Rome and of the Christian Church. During the ninth century the Norse people grew too numerous for their bleak country. At first their fighting men sailed on annual expeditions to the shores of Germany, England, and France, pillaged the cities even so far inland as Paris, and returned with their booty to their northern fjords.

After a while the Norsemen made permanent settlements on the coasts of several countries. The *Danes* conquered the eastern part of *England*, and in 1016 Canute, the king of Denmark, became also king of England. After twenty-six years of Danish rule the old English royal family regained the throne. But the Danish settlers remained a permanent and valuable part of the population of England.

The Swedes gained a foothold on the Russian shores of the Baltic early in the ninth century. The

Norse warriors were regarded by the Russians with fear and respect. In the year 862 the Norse chief *Rurik* was acknowledged as king over part of *Russia*. His successors laid the foundations of the great Russian monarchy.

The successors of Charles the Great in France were unable to defend their land against the northern sea rovers. To get peace, they granted a great part of north-western Gaul to *Rollo*, a Scandinavian chief. The North men settled in France soon became known as the *Normans*. They adopted the language, religion, and customs of their French neighbours.

Feudalism.—The social institutions of the Middle Ages in Europe were very different both from the Roman and from the modern customs. They were all determined by a peculiar system of land tenure and of government, which is known as the feudal system, or *feudalism*.

Its importance is readily seen, when one learns that the whole life of the European nations was shaped by feudalism during more than three centuries (the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth), and that some feudal customs and ideas have survived to the present day. Feudal institutions were not exactly alike throughout the different countries of Western Europe. The following description will present only the main features.

(1) **Land Tenure.**—God—so said feudal theorists—gave the country to the king, who is its *lord* or *suzerain*. The king could give large or small parts of his land to nobles, called his *vassals*. The vassals were absolute lords of their territory or *fief*. They

could invest lesser lords with parts of their fiefs, and thus have vassals of their own.

(2) **Government.**—The lord of a feudal estate, no matter whether it was the size of a province or of a big farm, was absolute ruler over his land. Its inhabitants were his subjects. He could tax them, punish them, be kind or cruel toward them. But if he bestowed some part of his land on a subvassal, then the sovereignty went with the land, and the subvassal also became a little king over his own fief. A single example will show how far this division of governmental authority was carried: France during the eleventh century was divided into about two hundred great fiefs. Their lords were the immediate vassals of the king. They had each his own vassals, and the latter again had subvassals, so that about 70,000 smaller fiefs existed in France.

(3) **Rights and Duties of Lords and Vassals.**—The lord had to give protection to his vassal. If the latter was threatened by a powerful enemy, the suzerain was obliged to help him. The vassal, in turn, swore to be always the faithful friend and ally of his 'liege lord.' A disloyal vassal lost his fief by 'forfeiture.'

(4) **The Feudal Army** was very showy, but cumbersome and inefficient. It consisted of the various lords, and of their mounted followers called *knights*. They all fought on horseback, with lance and sword, and were clad from head to foot in heavy iron armour. Personal prowess and skill was valued above generalship, and every knight tried to outdo the others in deeds of bravery. Compared with the Roman legion,

or with a modern army, there was almost no discipline. The system of vassalage prevented the formation of permanent military forces. To raise an army, a king had to summon the great lords; they, in turn, called on their vassals, and the latter on their vassals. Months might pass away before such an armed gathering was ready for the field.

(5) **Classes of Feudal Society.**—The lords formed the smallest part of the population. They regarded themselves as higher beings than the rest of humanity. Through many kinds of taxation, extortion, and robbery they lived in luxury from the work of the lower classes. Most of the common people were *serfs*, unfree men who were forced to till the lands of their lord, and to pay him the greater share of the products of their industry. The serfs were tied to the land, and could not be bought or sold like slaves. Slavery continued until the thirteenth century; since the sixth century the slaves in most countries were gradually turned into serfs. The most progressive part of the population were the *common freemen*, mostly artisans and merchants, who lived in the towns. In some parts of Europe, notably in England, there was also a large class of free farmers, called *yeomanry*.

Life of the Nobility.—A young noble could either enter the Church or become a knight. The bishops, archbishops, and other high dignitaries of the Roman Catholic Church were mostly members of the nobility and holders of feudal estates. For a knight the only proper pursuits were war, hunting, or military games. These games, called *tournaments*, consisted in mock fights on horseback, in full armour. Frequently a

combatant was killed. The residences of the feudal nobles were fortified castles, built on hill tops or in other commanding positions. Behind their strong castle walls the nobles could defy their enemies. When the division of authority had brought the royal power to its lowest ebb, as happened especially in Germany, then the knights descended even to highway robbery, and their castles were turned into the headquarters of noble brigandage. Merchants travelling along the road were stopped by mail clad robber barons, and were glad to be set free after the loss of half their goods.

Estimate of Feudalism.—Feudalism afforded a rough and imperfect sort of government in times when chaos had taken the place of order. It suited the turbulent people who were not ripe for Charlemagne's plan of establishing a great centralized empire. The migration of nations shook Europe to its very foundations. Before a new civilization could rise from the ruins, society gradually had to find its way back to law and order. Feudalism was the first stage in this upward progress.

The worst feature of feudalism was the gulf between noble and serf. In several European countries, notably in France, society until modern times fell into two great classes, the nobles, who despised all people outside their order, and the mass of the common people, both freemen and serfs, who hated the nobles worse than poison. The injustice of this division helped to bring the terrible French revolution at the close of the eighteenth century.

The best points of feudalism were these: First the relation between lord and vassal developed a high regard for *truth* and for the promised word. The ancient Germans were truth-loving by nature, and this good characteristic was confirmed by the feudal code of honour. No worse insult can be offered to a Western gentleman at the present day,

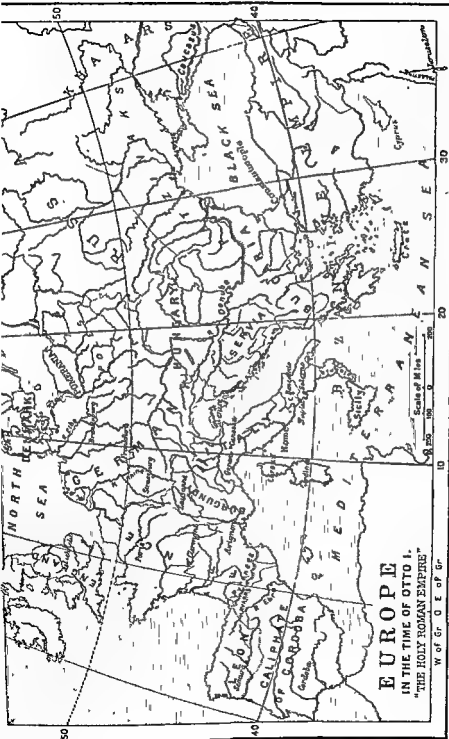
than to call him a liar. Secondly, various customs of knighthood bred a *reverence* for *women*, such as they had never before enjoyed in any society. That women in the West now hold such a high place in their families, that they are educated to be helpmates of their husbands and advisers to their sons, all this is largely due to feudalism.

Foundation of the Hungarian Nation.—The Magyars or Hungarians are the second Turanian people who invaded Europe in historic times. Moving gradually westward from their old home in Western Siberia, they occupied, about 895, the plains on both sides of the Middle Danube, which are now known as Hungary. For half a century they conducted plundering expeditions as far as the North Sea, Southern France, and Italy. The Emperor Otto I. put an end to their devastations by his great victory on the *Lechfeld*, in 955. During the following century the Magyars adopted Christianity, and by it they were gradually won over to the customs and institutions of the European peoples. During the fifteenth and sixteenth century the Hungarian warriors were the main bulwark of the Christian West against the attacks of the Mohammedan Turks.

Second Renewal of the Roman Empire (962).—*King Otto I. the Great*, of Germany (936-973), was a wise and energetic ruler. He curbed the unruly nobles, brought the royal authority into respect, and extended his kingdom by conquest. In 962 Otto led an expedition to Italy, and renewed in Rome the imperial office which had first been founded by Charlemagne. Otto's empire embraced Germany and Italy, and was henceforth styled the *Holy Roman*

Empire of the German Nation. It would have been far better for Germany, if Otto the Great and his successors had remained content to keep the natural barrier of the Alps as their southern boundary. The Italians revolted constantly against the German suzerainty, and the emperors wasted their strength in numerous campaigns, by which they enforced the unwilling submission of their southern subjects. During the emperor's long absences from Germany, the feudal nobility grew independent and arrogant. At last, by the middle of the thirteenth century, Germany was divided into two hundred and seventy-six virtually independent states. The emperors had practically lost their German kingdom, while they pursued the phantom of the Roman empire.

The Struggle between the Emperors and the Popes.—We have seen that the Popes at Rome were early recognized as the spiritual heads of the West. The emperors considered themselves supreme in temporal matters. A dispute arose between the Emperors and the Popes, who of the two should rank higher. The adherents of the papacy claimed that the Popes must stand above the Emperors, because they were the representatives of God on earth. God, they said, had put two great powers on earth, just as he placed two great lights in the heavens. And just as the moon was smaller than the sun, so the Emperor should obey the Pope. These and other arguments, mostly taken from the Bible, were answered by arguments, also mostly scriptural, in support of the imperial claims. The Emperors also maintained that the Popes were their vassals, because Pipin and



Standard Geogr. Exampl. London

Charlemagne had first granted land to the Roman bishops.

The dispute gradually divided a great part of Western Europe into two camps, the supporters of the Emperors and the supporters of the Popes. The papacy had a strong weapon in the religious faith of the people, while the Emperors were weakened by revolts of the feudal lords. The power of Rome was much advanced by the reforms of Pope *Gregory VII.* After having administered the temporal affairs of five successive Popes, he was himself elevated to the pontifical¹ chair (1073-1080). Christian priests had long believed that celibacy (=having no wife) was pleasing to God. But few of them² cared to practise celibacy. Gregory VII. recognized that the Church would be immensely strengthened if its priests had no family cares to divert them from their spiritual duties. He therefore *enforced celibacy* for all the clergy. Furthermore, he decreed that *ecclesiastics* (= officers of the Church) should *get their offices only from the Pope*, and never from a temporal lord. As the higher ecclesiastics were also feudal holders of nearly half the lands of Western Europe, the observance of this decree would have made the Pope more powerful than any other sovereign.

The German Emperor *Henry IV.* refused to recognize Gregory's decree, and called a council which formally deposed the Pope from his office. Gregory

¹ 'Pontifical chair,' the throne of the Pope, who is also called a 'pontiff.' This title is derived from the ancient Roman 'Pontifex,' the highest priest in Rome.

² This refers to the secular clergy. The numerous monks, of various orders, were all celibates.

in turn *excommunicated* the Emperor. For the mediaeval mind there was hardly a more terrible punishment than excommunication. It meant that a person was expelled from the Church, and that any one who befriended him was also guilty of a dreadful sin, which would bring his soul to hell. Henry IV. soon lost all his supporters. His opponents revolted openly, and his friends no longer dared to help him. His power withered before the curse of the Pope. In his despair the proud Emperor went on a lonely pilgrimage across the Alps, to beg the Pope's forgiveness. Gregory was staying at the castle of *Canossa* in Northern Italy. The Emperor, barefoot and dressed in sackcloth, waited for three days and nights in the court-yard of the castle, before the Pope received him. Then Gregory removed the sentence of excommunication.

The Supremacy of the Papacy.—The struggle between the empire and the papacy formed the greater part of the history of the noted House of *Hohenstaufen* (1138-1254). This dynasty finally was ruined, while the papacy rose supreme over all Christendom. Most of the European sovereigns in the thirteenth century accepted the Pope as their overlord. Kings were the vassals of the Roman Pontiff, and Rome again was the capital of the Western world.

Decline of the Papal Power.—The power of the Pope over the Catholics rested entirely on their faith in his divine authority. This popular faith suffered a rude shock by the so-called '*Great Schism*' in 1378. (Schism in church history means a division.) Since 1309 the Popes had fallen under French

influence, and had removed their residence to *Avignon*, in Southern France. The Italians protested vainly, and at last elected their own Pope, with his residence in Rome. Both Popes now claimed to be the sole representatives of God, and the infallible heads of the Church. Since one of the two must needs have been the false 'sole representative,' many people began to doubt whether either of them was really so near to God. The temporal power of the Popes was much weakened by the schism. The various kings and princes soon after freed themselves from papal interference in their governments. But in purely religious matters the supreme authority of the papacy was maintained until the Reformation, early in the sixteenth century. ~

Events leading to the Crusades.—Since the conquest of Jerusalem by Omar, Christian pilgrims had been allowed to visit the Holy City unmolested; but the Fatimid Khalif Al Hakem destroyed the Christian church there, and by his cruelty rendered the pilgrimage almost impossible. Under the Seljuks, who became masters of the city in 1058, the treatment of pilgrims was even worse. Throughout Europe there was a feeling of intense indignation which at last found voice and action in the person of Peter the Hermit.

This remarkable man had himself undertaken the pilgrimage. On his return, smarting under the indignities he had suffered while in Palestine, he obtained permission from the Pope to preach a Crusade, or Holy War. He then travelled through Italy and France, urging all Christians to take arms and go to the rescue of the Holy City. So tremendous was the effect of his

eloquence, that in 1095 the Pope summoned a great council at Clermont, the result of which was the First Crusade.

The Crusades.—Immediately after the Council of Clermont disorderly mobs rushed off to the East, without any definite plan or qualified leaders. Needless to say, none of them reached their destination, for those that survived the earlier marches were slain by the Seljuks in Asia Minor.

In the following year the real First Crusade started. Although no king took part in it, the chivalry of Europe was well represented, and in many respects it is the most important of all the Crusades. At any rate it is the only one which can really be said to have accomplished its object. The different parts of the army, commanded by ten of the leading princes of Europe, met at Constantinople. After capturing Nicaea the Crusaders gained the great cavalry victory of Dorylaeum. Antioch was taken in 1098, and in the following year, after a siege of five weeks, the object of the Crusade was attained, when the wearied and greatly diminished army entered Jerusalem. As a result of the First Crusade, three Christian kingdoms were formed, Jerusalem, Antioch, and Edessa, the first-named being given to Godfrey de Bouillon.

The event which led to the Second Crusade was the capture of Edessa by the great Seljuk prince, Zangi, in 1144. Peter the Hermit was dead, but his place was ably taken by the famous monk, Bernard of Clairvaux, and it was due to his eloquence that three years later two armies set out for Asia under Conrad III. of Germany and Louis VII. of France. The expedition, however,

was a complete failure, and the Crusaders were obliged to return to Europe after an unsuccessful attempt to take Damascus.

The death of Zangi should have enabled the Christian kingdoms in Asia to hold their own against the Moslems, but there was a lack of unity and good faith amongst them, which made them an easy prey to any enterprising adversary. It is not surprising, therefore, that they succumbed to the redoubtable Salah ad-Din, the Sultan of Egypt. In 1187 this warrior captured Jerusalem, which had been held by the Christians since the time of Godfrey de Bouillon. The effect produced in Europe by this loss was almost equal to the enthusiasm which had preceded the First Crusade. For the third time in less than a century huge armies took the field. On this occasion the leaders were three monarchs, Richard I. of England, Philip II. of France, and Frederick Barbarossa of Germany. Frederick, however, never reached Syria, for he was drowned while crossing a mountain stream in Asia Minor, and the greater part of his army refused to continue the march without their leader. After a good deal of delay on the journey, Richard and Philip arrived at Acre, which was being besieged by the Syrian Christians. The city was taken after tremendous fighting and innumerable deeds of bravery on both sides; but the effort, which was a mistaken and useless undertaking, exhausted the strength of the Crusaders, and, to make matters worse, Richard and Philip quarrelled with each other. The latter returned to Europe, leaving Richard to continue the war by himself. The

English king, after more desperate fighting, advanced to within twenty miles of Jerusalem, and might have realized the object of the Crusade, had not news that his brother John was intriguing against him necessitated his immediate return to England. Peace was made with Salah ad-Din; and the Third Crusade, of which so much had been expected and so many stories still are told, ended in failure.

The remaining Crusades may be recorded briefly. The Fourth Crusade (1202-1204) never reached Syria at all. The leaders were persuaded by the Venetians, who supplied them with ships, to attack Constantinople, where the Emperor had been deposed by his brother. Having restored him to the throne, the Crusaders proceeded to quarrel with him and to set up a western prince in his place, thus forming a Latin kingdom in Constantinople, which lasted for nearly sixty years. Venice was well satisfied to see her rival for the commercial supremacy of the Mediterranean weakened, instead of the Moslems, with whom she carried on a prosperous trade.

In 1212 there occurred one of the strangest things in history. This was the Children's Crusade. Thousands of children started from France and Germany, most of them to be robbed or murdered before leaving Europe, and the few who reached the East to be sold as slaves.

The Fifth Crusade (1227-1229) was led by the Emperor Frederick II., whose truce with the Ayyubid Sultan Al Kamel has already been mentioned. Frederick found that he could gain more by diplomacy than by fighting, and Jerusalem was given up to him

on condition that the Moslems should be allowed to use the Mosque of Omar.

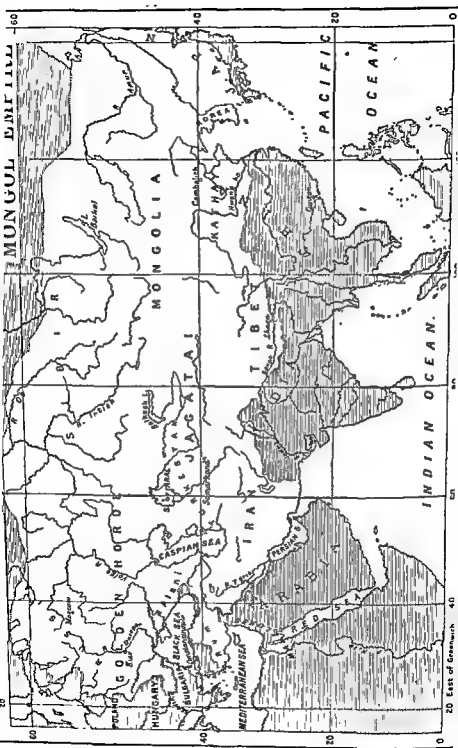
The two Crusades of Louis IX. of France were unimportant in their results. He undertook the first to regain Jerusalem, which had again been wrested from the Christians in 1244. Landing in Egypt he captured Damietta, but was defeated by Baybars at the battle of Mansurah. On his retreat he was taken prisoner, and had it not been for Shagarat ad-Dorr he would never have been released. His second venture was against Tunis in 1270. It was even more disastrous than the first, for his army was attacked by plague, and he himself was one of the victims.

The last of the Crusaders was Prince Edward of England, who led a small army to Syria in 1272, but failed to accomplish anything worthy of note. In 1291 Acre, the last Christian stronghold in the East, was taken by the Mamluks, and the history of the Crusades closes.

Failure of the Crusades.—The Crusaders were the chief cause of their own failure. Their interests were more often selfish than religious. Instead of being a disciplined army under one general, they were frequently an unruly mob under several leaders, who were probably at variance with one another. The Emperors of Constantinople, fearing Christian rivals so near their dominions, did more to hinder than to help them. Lastly, the Christian garrisons resident in Syria were not large enough to found a permanent colony or strong enough to be an effective military occupation.

Results of the Crusades.—As military expeditions

the Crusades failed to accomplish their purpose. They proved the inefficiency of the feudal military organization. Several millions of lives were lost in the vain struggles for the tomb of Christ. But the Crusades produced other results of historic importance. (1) They acquainted the Western people with the superior learning, arts, and industry of the Byzantines and Saracens. The civilization of Western Europe benefited from these new sources of culture. (2) The trade between East and West was immensely increased. The commercial cities of *Venice* and *Genoa*, in Italy, laid the foundations of their wealth and power during the Crusades. (3) The opening up of the near East also roused a geographical interest in more distant countries, the sources of silk, spices, and ivory, which formed the most valuable staples of trade. The Venetian *Marco Polo* penetrated to the great silk country, China, and gave to the West the first clear account of that empire. (4) The Crusades reacted in various ways on the political condition of Western Europe. They lessened the power of the feudal lords, because many great families were ruined financially, or died out altogether. In France and England the royal power was the gainer by these losses of the feudal nobility. Elsewhere, notably in Germany and Italy, the cities profited by the ruin of the nobles. Finally, the period of the Crusades was also that of the deepest and most general superstition. The Papacy and the Church grew rich and powerful through the bequests of dead crusaders, and through the countless gifts of devout worshippers.



CHAPTER XX

THE MONGOL CONQUESTS AND THE RISE OF THE OTTOMAN TURKS

I. THE MONGOL CONQUESTS.

The Mongols.—The name *Mongols* includes numerous nomadic tribes centering in Mongolia, and extending far to the north and west of that country. They live in felt tents, and their principal work is cattle-raising. Large flocks of sheep, camels, horses, and cows form their wealth. Their food consists mainly of meat, milk, butter, and cheese. Being northern Buddhists, they recognize the *Dalai Lama* in Lassa as their spiritual head.

Jenghiz Khan.—The early history of the Mongols is little known. They rose suddenly into a world power under the leadership of the great chieftain *Temujin*, who was born in 1162. He united the tribes of Central and Eastern Asia, and finished the conquest of North China in 1215. This was under the Kin dynasty. When a priest prophesied for him the conquest of the world (as the oracle of Ammon had done for Alexander the Great), he assumed the title Jenghiz Khan, or 'Universal Sovereign.' During the following years he conquered Western Mongolia and Turkestan, with an army of 700,000 men. Samarkand and other large cities

were burned, with the loss of over 200,000 lives. One of Jenghiz Khan's sons conquered Southern Russia to the river Dnieper. Temujin was planning further conquests, when he died in 1227. He divided the empire among his four sons, of whom *Okkodai*, the ruler of China, was chosen as Great Khan.

Invasion of Europe.—Okkodai sent his nephew Batu with an immense army to continue the subjugation of the western countries. During the years 1237-1240 the Tartar hordes devastated Russia, took the great towns of Moscow and Kiev, and advanced to the borders of Germany. In 1241 they defeated the united armies of the Poles and the German knights, in Silesia, turned most of Hungary into a desert, and sent marauding parties to the coast of the Adriatic. The inefficiency of the feudal armies, and the lamentable quarrel between Emperor and Pope, which divided the European princes against themselves, make it seem quite probable that the Mongols could have advanced to the Atlantic. Fortunately Batu withdrew towards the Volga, when he heard of the sudden death of Okkodai in December, 1241.

The Yuan Dynasty.—The conquest of China was completed by the overthrow of the Southern Sung dynasty in 1280. Kublai Khan, the grandson of Temujin, and fourth Great Khan, was recognized as emperor of all China, and so became the founder of the Yuan dynasty, which held sway over the Middle Kingdom until 1368.

Conquest of Persia and Mesopotamia.—A younger brother of Kublai, named Hulagu, set out to conquer the Mohammedan countries of the West. Hulagu

sympathized with the Christians, and offered to co-operate with the French king St. Louis, who was just then engaged in the seventh Crusade (1249-1254). If St. Louis had made a politic use of the proffered alliance, the rule of Islam in Syria and Egypt would have been overthrown, and Jerusalem would have been opened to Christian pilgrims. But the French king blindly threw away his chance, by sending a disrespectful reply to the Mongol Khan. While the seventh Crusade ended in the capture of the king and all his army by the Egyptians, the Mongols carried everything before them in Persia and Mesopotamia. In 1258 the last Abbasid Caliph surrendered Bagdad to the victorious Hulagu.

Greatest Extent of the Mongol Empire, and Further Plans of Conquest.—Taken all together, the dependencies of the Great Khan in Peking¹ formed the largest empire in the world's history. All of present China, Korea, outer Mongolia and Southern Siberia, Turkestan, and Asia west of India, Southern Russia and Hungary, looked to Peking as their capital. Kublai's expeditions against Indo-China and Annam failed on account of the hot climate, which wasted his armies by disease. In 1274 Kublai Khan sent a fleet of nine hundred vessels, carrying seventy thousand Chinese and Koreans, and thirty thousand Mongols, across the sea for a descent on Japan. A violent storm wrecked the fleet, and the survivors of the disaster were put to death or sold as slaves by the Japanese.

Break-up of the Mongol Empire.—The huge Mongol

¹The Mongols and foreigners called the capital by its Mongol name 'Kambalu.' Ruins of its walls can be seen north of the present Peking.

empire had no inner coherence, save that of common tribal traditions, and of respect for the Great Khan, the recognized head of the ruling family. The difficulty of sending orders from end to end of the overgrown dominions was alone sufficient to cause their break-up into many independent Khanates. The division was hastened by the conversion to Islam of most of the western Mongols. It has been pointed out above, that Islam came to Northern China at that period.

Russia under the Mongol Yoke.—Tartar Khans were masters of Russia for 250 years, until 1480. They lived on the steppes of Southern and Eastern Russia, and mixed little with the conquered people. All Russians, rich and poor alike, had to pay a heavy annual tax to the Tartar rulers. The Russian princes were allowed to manage their own governments, but held their office at the pleasure of the Khan. The princes of *Moscow* entered into closer relations with their Mongol overlords. They finally acted as chief tax collectors for the Khan, and in this way laid the basis of that wealth and power which later helped them to the throne of united Russia. The long Tartar domination over Russia accounts mainly for the backwardness of her civilization. She became more Asiatic than European, and remained for centuries almost untouched by the progress of the western countries.

The Mongol Empire as a Link between China and the West—During the Mongol supremacy a lively intercourse was kept up between the Far East and Europe. Merchants and ambassadors travelled back

and forth, either over land by way of the Pei Lu and Nan Lu,¹ or by the sea route from Canton to the Persian Gulf and Bagdad. The most famous western visitor to China was the Italian *Marco Polo*, who was long attached to the court of Kublai Khan, and wrote a valuable account of his experience and observations. About 1292

Pope Nicholas IV. sent the first Roman Catholic missionary, a monk named *Jean de Montcorvin*. Montcorvin was well received by the emperor Kublai. The new religion gained ground rapidly, and in 1307 the Pope raised Montcorvin to the rank of archbishop of Peking. Since the seventh century there had existed in China Christians of the *Nestorian* sect, who



TAMERLANE.

were quite numerous in the north-west. These presently quarrelled with the Roman Catholics, and in consequence both sects were ruined. After the overthrow of the Yuan dynasty the strong national feeling of the Chinese swept away the remnants of Christianity.

Timur.—Toward the close of the fourteenth century

¹ Pei Lu = northern road, Nan Lu = southern road, the two historic highways leading from North western China to Western Asia. They run respectively north and south of the Tien Shan or Heaven Mountains.

the chief Timur, or Tamerlane, a descendant of Jenghiz Khan, again brought half of Asia under Mongol supremacy. He conquered inner Asia from the Great Wall of China to Moscow, subjugated Persia, and overran India. In 1402 he invaded the Turkish dominions in Western Asia, an event which proved fortunate for Europe. The Turkish Sultan



ASAR.

Bayazid was about to advance with a victorious army up the Danube river, when he suddenly had to return for the defence of his Asiatic dominions. In the terrible battle of *Angora* in Asia Minor, 1402, the Turkish army was annihilated, and Bayazid himself was made a prisoner by Tamerlane. The Sultan of Egypt sought safety by recognizing Timur as his overlord. The great conqueror

was preparing for an invasion of China, when he suddenly died, in 1405. His vast empire quickly fell to pieces.

The Mongol Empire in India.—*Baber*, a great-grandson of Timur, repeated the invasion of India in 1526, and founded there the empire of the Moghuls (Mughals), which lasted until the supremacy of the English, in 1761. *Akbar the Great* (1556-1605), Baber's grandson, extended the new dominion

over nearly all India. By tolerating all religious sects, and by employing Hindu nobles side by side with Mohammedans in his government, Akbar conciliated the subjected states to his rule. He partitioned the empire into provinces under governors or viceroys, and reorganized the army so as to prevent mutinies. Akbar must always be counted among the most successful and beneficent rulers in history. The emperor Shah Jahan (1628-1658) raised exquisite buildings. Of his Pearl Mosque at Agra a historian, Sir W. Hunter, says that it is perhaps the purest and loveliest house of prayer in the world.



SHAH JAHAN

The last Mughal emperors were bigoted Mussulmans, and oppressed their Hindu subjects. They thus raised up against themselves a confederacy of native warriors known as the Marathas, who by ceaseless attacks helped to overthrow the Delhi dynasty. The Mohammedan governors of provinces set up as independent potentates, and all India fell into that state of anarchy which enabled the prudent British with small forces to gain their splendid East Indian empire.

II. THE RISE OF THE OTTOMAN TURKS.

Rise of the Ottoman Turks—We must now turn our attention to the branch of the Turkish race which has had the greatest influence on history. Like most of

the great things of the world, the Ottoman Empire sprang from a minute source. Towards the close of the thirteenth century a band of some 400 Turkish families wandered from Khorasan through Armenia into Asia Minor, part of which still belonged to the declining Empire of the Seljuks. This small party, under its chief, Ertoghrul, helped the Seljuk Sultan to gain a victory over the Mongols, and was given as a reward the little principality of Sultan-Oeni in the middle of Asia Minor.

Othman, the son of Ertoghrul, became an independent ruler, and is regarded as the founder of the Ottoman Empire. From him the Othmanlis, as the Ottoman Turks call themselves, take their name, and to his famous dream, in which he foresaw a mighty Empire with Constantinople as its capital, much of the ambition and success of his house has been attributed. On the death of the last Seljuk Sultan, Othman became the chief Turkish ruler in Asia Minor. He extended his dominions to the north-west, and learnt on his death-bed that his son Orkhan had captured Brusa from the Greeks, an event of great importance, as this city now became the Ottoman capital, marking the first step in the advance on Europe.

The Janissaries.—The reign of Orkhan (1326-1359) is celebrated for the organization of the Ottoman army, and more especially for the foundation of the famous corps of Janissaries, or New Troops. By a masterly stroke of statecraft Alaeddin, the brother and vizier of Orkhan, decided to levy each year a thousand children from Christian captives or subjects,

and to train them as Moslems, with rigid military discipline, to form the most terrible fighting force of their new masters. The Janissaries were given every inducement to obedience and courage, for rapid promotion and high pay were the rewards of ability and bravery. During the three centuries in which this system was continued, the total levy of Christian children must have amounted to half a million. In later times the corps was recruited from Turkish families and from the children of Janissaries.

Conquests in Europe.—At the close of Orkhan's reign the Ottomans gained their first footing in Europe by the capture of Tzympe and Gallipoli on the northern shore of the Dardanelles. Under his successor, Morad I. (1359-1389), a rapid advance was made. After taking the great city of Adrianople from the Greeks, the Turks found themselves face to face with the more warlike Slavonic tribes, but in 1363 they gained the victory of Marizza over the Servians and Hungarians. The annexation of Bulgaria in 1388 led to a league of the Eastern States of Europe against Morad. In the following year the allies were defeated on the plain of Kossova, and Servia and Bulgaria became subject to the Turks. Morad was killed in this battle, and was succeeded by his son Bayazid, the first Ottoman ruler to take the title of Sultan.

The brilliant and unchecked successes of the Turks at last aroused a general feeling of alarm throughout Europe. The Pope preached a crusade against the Moslem invaders, and in 1396 the chivalry of the West once more marched eastward on a holy war. The confederate Christian army, led by Sigismund of

Hungary and the Count de Nevers of France, succeeded in recapturing several towns from the Turks, while Bayazid himself was absent from the scene of action ; but on the latter's arrival before Nicopolis, which the Christians were besieging, their successes were wiped out by one of the most terrible defeats in history, in which the Christian army was practically annihilated.

After the battle of Nicopolis, the victorious Sultan proceeded with little difficulty to conquer Greece. The country which, nearly two thousand years before, had so heroically resisted the Persians, now fell an easy prey to the last of the Asiatic invaders. It seemed that nothing could avert the doom of Constantinople, and Bayazid was on the point of realizing the ambition of his house, when his cup of victory was dashed to the ground by the advent of Timur the Mongol.

Nothing in the history of the Ottomans is more remarkable and praiseworthy than their wonderful recovery after the calamities that followed the battle of Angora. At the opening of the fifteenth century they seemed to be ruined beyond repair. Not only was the Empire broken up by the natural revolt of conquered states against a fallen master, but civil war amongst the sons of Bayazid threatened them with immediate destruction. "The Noah who preserved the ark of the Empire," and restored the fortunes of his race, was Mohammad I. (1413-1421), one of the greatest of all the Sultans. In a surprisingly short time, thanks to his energy and wisdom, the Turks regained all they had lost, and by the second year of the reign of the next Sultan, Morad II. (1421-1451), they were once more in a position to besiege Con-

stantinople. Morad conducted the operations with great skill, and would in all probability have gained the crowning glory of capturing the Byzantine capital, had not trouble in Asia forced him to abandon the siege.

During the reign of Morad II. a great attempt was made to drive the Turks out of Europe by the famous Hungarian leader Hunyades, better known as the White Knight. The successes gained by this champion not only procured the co-operation of the Eastern States, but also persuaded crusaders of the West to enter upon another holy war. At first the Christians carried all before them, and a treaty was signed by which the Sultan gave up Serbia and Wallachia. Having made peace, Morad abdicated and retired to Asia; but on hearing that the Christians had broken the treaty to take advantage of his absence, he led an army against them, and, by the great victory of Varna (1444), completely crushed his treacherous foes.

It was at this time that the renowned Albanian hero Scanderbeg, who had been brought up as a Moslem by Morad, escaped from the Turks and established his rule in his native mountains, where, for twenty-five years, he defied all attacks, until he was eventually overcome by Mohammad II.

Capture of Constantinople (1453).—Mohammad II. (1451-1481), surnamed "The Conqueror," succeeded his father at the age of twenty-one. He at once began to prepare elaborate plans for the capture of Constantinople. Twice already the Turks had had the coveted prize almost within their grasp, when an unforeseen event had snatched it from them.

Mohammad therefore determined to neglect no detail that could improve his chance of victory. The Emperor Constantine Palaeologus, though receiving practically no help from the West, was scarcely less diligent in strengthening his defence, and, indeed, for his resolute courage in the face of calamity, this last of the Caesars need not fear comparison with the greatest of the Roman name.

In military history the siege occupies an important place, for it shows ancient and modern warfare side by side. The old-fashioned battering-ram and catapult, the terrible Greek fire, and the recently invented cannon were all employed.

In the spring of 1453 the Sultan opened operations with an army of 70,000 men and a fleet of 320 ships. The first general assault was repulsed, and the siege was still further prolonged by the brilliant success of five Christian ships from Chios, which broke through the Turkish fleet, bringing provisions and ammunition for the garrison. Being unable to enter the Golden Horn from the sea, Mohammad formed the bold plan of transporting ships by land to the upper end of the harbour. This was the turning-point of the siege. The garrison was not numerous enough to defend all sides of the city at once. A great breach was made in the walls, but the Emperor refused to capitulate. Accordingly, seven weeks after the beginning of the siege, Mohammad ordered a final assault. Led by the huge Janissary Hasan, the Turks poured into the town. Constantine was slain in the breach fighting bravely to the last. The Conqueror entered his new capital in state, and immediately summoned

the Moslems to prayer in the great church of St. Sophia, which *from that day has remained a mosque.*

Thus the dream of Othman was fulfilled. The century which had opened so darkly for his house now saw the Ottomans established in the city of Constantine as one of the greatest powers in the world. The event is epoch-making not only in Turkish but in European history. The last remnant of the Roman Empire had fallen.

CHAPTER XXI

GENERAL VIEW OF EUROPE TO THE CLOSE OF THE MIDDLE AGES

The Italian City Republics.—During the early Middle Ages the towns throughout Western Europe formed parts of feudal estates. The exactions of the overlords led to a long struggle between them and the towns, in which the latter were finally victorious. In Italy the conditions were most favourable for the cities, and they succeeded in freeing themselves entirely from their feudal obligations. At the close of the thirteenth century the political condition of Northern and Central Italy was quite similar to that of ancient Greece. Two hundred independent and self-governing city states owed only nominal allegiance to the Emperor or to the Pope.

The wealthiest and most powerful of these cities were *Venice*, *Genoa*, and *Florence*. They were alike centres of trade and industry, of learning and art. The commerce with the East, which flourished specially since the Crusades, was their chief source of gain. Venice at the height of her power was supreme over the Adriatic and over the whole Eastern Mediterranean. Her glory lasted until the

fifteenth century, when the Turks shut her out from most of the Asiatic trade. When Vasco da Gama discovered the sea route round the Cape of Good Hope (1498), the whole trade with India and China was turned away from the Mediterranean, and decay fell on the great ports of Italy.

The Hanseatic League.—It has been told above how the German feudal lords degenerated into highway robbers. The emperor-king was too feeble to maintain order; the trade and industry of the land were going to ruin. In this crisis a number of German cities combined into a league for mutual aid against the nobles on land and against pirates on sea. Hamburg, Luebeck, and Bremen were the principal members of the *Hanseatic League*, which presently included about eighty-five towns. They not only succeeded in protecting commerce, but forced the king of Denmark to observe their regulations. During the fifteenth century the league enjoyed a practical monopoly of trade throughout Northern Europe.

The Mediæval Cities as Centres of Progress.—The Hanseatic towns, and most other big cities of Germany, France, and England, had the right of self-government. Their citizens, called burghers, were early trained to the exercise of political rights, which remained unknown to the mass of the rural population. It was in the towns, therefore, that those ideas of civil liberty were kept awake, which in modern times were to transform the down-trodden serfs into free-born citizens.

The wealth accumulated by the burghers soon was applied to the encouragement of learning and art.

Europe still possesses invaluable treasures in the paintings, in the noble cathedrals, and the handsome public buildings, which adorned the free cities of the Middle Ages.

The Beginnings of the European Nations.—We have learned that Charlemagne had the plan of uniting all Germanic peoples into one great nation, under a centralized imperial government. The forces of disorder, however, were stronger than the will of one eminent statesman; his death was followed by the chaos of the dark ages. Feudalism brought a little improvement; but its division of sovereignty among many hundred petty lords made the growth of united nations impossible.

Yet the foundations of the modern European states lie back in the feudal times. They are largely *geographical*. The Spanish peninsula is abruptly cut off by the Pyrenees mountains. Italy is walled in on the north and north-west by the Alps. Between France and Germany lie the Vosges mountains, which have always tended to separate the people east and west of them. England is severed from the continent by the Channel and the North Sea. According to these dividing lines differences in language and customs developed among the various populations. The people of Italy, France, and Spain, spoke languages descended from the Latin. Very similar at first, they gradually grew apart, until the common man of any one country could no longer understand a person from the neighbouring country. When the treaty of Verdun was concluded, in 843, there was already a considerable difference between

their resistance. France seemed about to lose its nationality, and to become an English dependency. Just then a peasant girl, *Joan of Arc*, had visions, in which she heard a message from Heaven, bidding her to deliver her country from the foreign foe. Her enthusiasm overcame the doubts of the king, and in 1429 she was allowed to lead an army against the English. Belief in her divine mission doubled the courage of the French soldiers, while it confounded their enemies. The city of *Orleans* was taken, and the whole tide of the war was turned by the victory. The nation's saviour received the name of '*Maid of Orleans*.' During the rest of the war the English lost nearly all their possessions in France.

Louis XI. (1461-1483).—In Louis XI. France had one of her ablest sovereigns. He found the feudal nobility laid low by the Hundred Years' War, and he followed up his advantage by every means at his command, fair or foul. He used to say, "He who knows how to deceive, knows how to reign." Louis was eminently successful in his policy, and laid the basis of the great centralized monarchy which was perfected by his successors.

Charles VIII. (1483-1498), the son of Louis XI., quite freed himself from the trammels of feudal tradition. Instead of the levies of lords, he employed an army of paid professional soldiers, who were under his personal control. Toward the close of his reign he proved the efficiency of his army by the rapid conquest of the kingdom of Naples in Southern Italy. An alliance of nearly all his neighbours obliged him, however, to abandon the newly-won dominions.

England.—It has been briefly told how Britain was conquered by the Germanic Angles and Saxons, and how the eastern half of the country was overrun by the Danes. From 1042 to 1066 King *Edward the Confessor*, of the old English line, ruled over the island. After his death two claimants contended for the throne: *Harold*, Earl of the West Saxons, who was chosen by the leading English lords, and *William, Duke of Normandy*, who claimed to have been appointed as successor by the late King Edward.

The Norman Conquest.—William of Normandy was a direct descendant of the Scandinavian pirate-chief-tain *Rollo*, the founder of the Norman duchy in France. Since Rollo's time the Germanic Norsemen of Normandy had become entirely French in language and customs. In the year 1066 Duke William, thereafter called the *Conqueror*, landed in England, and defeated the newly-crowned king *Harold* in the decisive battle of *Hastings*. Harold fell, and William was crowned in London as king of England. For a long time two nationalities and languages existed side by side in England: the Norman French king and nobility, and the Anglo-Saxon people. In the distribution of the conquered land among his nobles, William displayed far-sighted statesmanship. He obliged the subvassals of his lords to swear an oath of allegiance to the king in person, so that he exercised direct authority over all the nobles in the land. In several other ways he also limited the power of the lords, thus strengthening the throne from the start and preventing the complete division of sovereignty,

the *East-Franks*, who were almost wholly Germanic, and developed into the German nation, and the *West-Franks*, who were largely of Latin and Celtic blood, and became the French nation.

The *political* development of the nations was chiefly in consequence of the geographical conditions. The principal feature of the political history was the growth of strong, centralized *monarchies*, at the expense of the feudal lords. This took place in Spain, France, and England. In Germany and Italy the royal power was prevented from rising to its highest influence, through the ambitions of the German emperors in Italy, and through the struggle between the Emperors and the Popes.

Spain.—The Spanish monarchy had its beginnings among ceaseless warfare against the Saracens. Starting from the mountains of the north-west and north-east, several Christian chieftains slowly re-conquered the peninsula from the Mohammedans. In 1469 the two principal states were united by the marriage of *Ferdinand*, prince of Aragon, to *Isabella*, princess of Castile. Their joint forces were employed for the final expulsion of the Moors from Spain. In 1492 fell *Granada*, the beautiful capital of the last Moorish kingdom in Europe. The Spanish kingdom quickly rose to be the first power in the West.

France.—The last Carolingian (= of the family of Charlemagne) king of France died in 987. The great nobles then bestowed the crown on *Hugh Capet*, the able head of the feudal family, which had long held estates larger even than those of the Carolingians. At first the *Capetians*, as the new dynasty was called, had little more

than their royal title to distinguish them from their feudal vassals. It was in the interest of the Church and of the towns to support the royal authority against the lawlessness of the nobles. By using well this support and their own resources, the Capetian kings steadily expanded their own domains, and broke the power of the nobles.

From 1336 until 1453 France was engaged in the so-called *Hundred Years' War* with England. The chief source of trouble lay in the feudal relations of the English king, who held large provinces in France as fiefs from the French king. The English sovereign did not like to be treated as a vassal, and the French king's legal right to treat him as such led to constant friction. The English King, Edward III., also claimed that he was rightfully entitled to the French crown, through descent, on the female side, from the old royal house of France. The two most important battles of the war were those of *Crécy* (1346) and of *Poitiers* (1356). In both the English defeated superior numbers of French knights by their new tactics of relying mainly on common foot soldiers, armed with bows and arrows. The English archers shot with deadly strength and accuracy, piercing through the iron mail of the proud horsemen. These two victories brought about a complete change in the methods of warfare. The feudal army of knights gave way to trained infantry, supported by archers. Within the fourteenth century firearms were also introduced, and against them armour was wholly useless.

Joan of Arc.—The French were finally so discouraged by their disasters that they almost stopped

their resistance. France seemed about to lose its nationality, and to become an English dependency. Just then a peasant girl, *Joan of Arc*, had visions, in which she heard a message from Heaven, bidding her to deliver her country from the foreign foe. Her enthusiasm overcame the doubts of the king, and in 1429 she was allowed to lead an army against the English. Belief in her divine mission doubled the courage of the French soldiers, while it confounded their enemies. The city of *Orleans* was taken, and the whole tide of the war was turned by the victory. The nation's saviour received the name of '*Maid of Orleans*.' During the rest of the war the English lost nearly all their possessions in France.

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which was so disastrous to Germany. The Norman kings ruled over England until 1154.

England under the Plantagenets (1154-1485).—The second king of this line, *Richard I. the Lion-hearted*, spent all his resources on the third Crusade. His brother, King *John*, has a bad name in English history. John had the misfortune of being involved in a quarrel with the Pope, just at the time when the Papacy enjoyed its greatest power. Being excommunicated, he humiliated himself and his country so far as to accept *England as a fief from the Pope* (1213). From the beginning of his reign John's misgovernment had embroiled him with the barons. In 1215 the confederated barons forced him to sign a charter, which defined the ancient rights and privileges of the people. *Magna Charta* (= Great Charter) is the most important document in the history of constitutional government. Among many other provisions it contained the following safeguards of popular rights: (1) *No freeman should be deprived of life, liberty, or property, save by legal judgment of his peers* (= social equals). (2) *No taxes should be imposed, save by the Common Council of the realm.*

The provisions of the *Magna Charta* were often disregarded by the tyrannical kings. But the people never forgot their liberties, and finally succeeded in having them permanently assured.

Scotland and Wales are still in great part inhabited by Celtic people, descendants of the ancient Britons, called *Welshmen* and *Scots*. Both countries long remained independent of English rule. In 1282 Wales became a part of the English kingdom. Since

then the heir-apparent bears the title 'Prince of Wales.' The Scots maintained their independence after a series of wars lasting from 1296 until 1328. In 1603 King James VI. of Scotland, who was partly descended from the English royal house, became king of England, with the title *James I.* Since then, England, Scotland, and Wales have remained united under the designation of '*Great Britain.*'

The Wars of the Roses (1455-1485).—The Wars of the Roses were a long struggle for supremacy between the Houses of *York* and *Lancaster*, two rival branches of the Plantagenet family. The Yorkists and their adherents had a white rose for their badge, the Lancastrians a red one. During the thirty years of warfare the English baronage was completely ruined. Half of the lords were slain, while most of the survivors had their estates confiscated. The kings profited by the losses of the feudal nobility, just as the French kings had profited by the Crusades. For a hundred years after the Wars of the Roses the English kings ruled as absolute monarchs, disregarding the Magna Charta.

Germany and Italy.—The most important event in the mediaeval history of these two countries has already been mentioned. It was the revival of the 'Holy Roman Empire' by Otto the Great, in 962. The German kingship was *elective*. Usually, however, the electors chose the king from the existing royal family. From the middle of the thirteenth until the nineteenth century the '*Electors,*' usually seven in number, were the highest sovereign princes of Germany.

There were some great rulers among the German kings. The most notable dynasty was that of the *Hohenstaufen* (1138-1254). The second king of this house, *Frederick I. Barbarossa* (= Red Beard), was one of the most heroic figures of the Middle Ages. With a strong hand he upheld the ideal of German national unity against the rebellious vassals, while he also maintained his imperial dignity in Italy by six expeditions across the Alps. The decline and ruin of the Hohenstaufen in their struggle against the Popes brought that deplorable period in Germany, which is known as the '*interregnum*' (1256-1273). There was no king then, and the wild nobles carried on endless civil wars.

Italy was divided even more than Germany. The many petty city republics were just as jealous of one another as the Greek cities used to be, and like their Hellenic models they waged constant wars for self-aggrandizement. In the Italian cities also, just as in ancient Greece, the extreme individualism of the citizens produced a brilliant but short-lived civilization. *Florence* became a second Athens, and could boast among her sons more great men than any other one place, save Athens, ever possessed. First among famous Florentines stand *Michael Angelo*, a masterful genius as architect, painter, and sculptor, and *Leonardo da Vinci*, whom some consider to have been the most universally-gifted man that ever lived. He excelled in every branch of art and science then known. These and many other great Italians lived about the year 1500.

German trade, industry, and culture all benefited

by the constant intercourse with Italy. Italian models also stimulated the intellectual life of France and England.

Rise of Austria.—After the year 1438 the German crown, and with it the imperial dignity, became hereditary in the *House of Hapsburg*. Working constantly for the benefit of their family domain of *Austria*, the Hapsburg emperors gradually acquired, as dukes of Austria, a power quite overshadowing that of any other German princes. But they did not succeed in enhancing the glamour of the imperial office, or in bringing Germany forward on the path toward national unity. This glorious work was done much later under the leadership of *Prussia*.

Russia.—A new era began for Russia with the reign of *Ivan III.*, often called *the Great* (1462-1505). The Tartar domination was ended, and Ivan had a free hand to consolidate around his capital of *Moscow* the territories of the minor Russian princes. Toward the end of his reign he assumed instead of his old title of 'Grand-Prince of Moscow' the style of '*Autocrat of All Russia*.' Ivan's successors continued his policy of building up a personal absolutism, and gradually incorporated all the minor Russian governments in the Muscovite monarchy.

Under the reign of *Ivan IV. the Terrible* (1533-1584), the Cossack leader *Jermack* laid the foundations of the Russian Asiatic dominions by conquering *Siberia* as far as the Irtysh river. Ivan IV. also introduced the beginnings of European culture in Russia, by employing foreign artisans, and by opening regular over-sea trade with England.

Intellectual Condition of Mediæval Europe.—Compared with the feverish activity shown by the modern West in all departments of study, the Middle Ages were a barren time, and deserve their slighting appellation of 'the Dark Ages.' Between the ruin of Roman culture and the days of Charlemagne lies intellectual barbarism. Charlemagne, at the very beginning of the ninth century, founded schools in connection with churches and monasteries. Here Latin was taught, together with divinity (= theology) and other bits of learning useful to priests. *Latin* remained throughout the Middle Ages the medium of all scholars, to the utter neglect of native tongues.

After Charlemagne's death the schools grew very slowly to be something more than priestly seminaries. Beside a few Latin authors, the works of *Aristotle*, which had been introduced by Arabian scholars, were chiefly studied. The leading scholars after the ninth century were known as the 'Schoolmen.' Their voluminous writings consisted mostly of speculations, which the authors themselves did not understand.

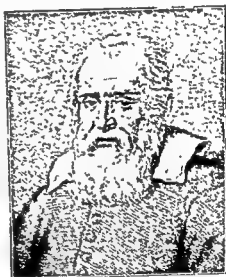
In Italy the freer life in the cities was favourable to an early revival of intellectual pursuits. The start was made with the renewed study of *Roman Law* during the twelfth century. The University of *Bologna* soon attracted law students from all parts of Western Europe. Universities quickly sprang up in other countries, most of them being extensions of the old cathedral schools. The university of *Salamanca* in Spain was a far-famed seat of learning. The university of *Paris* became the focus of European thought through the lectures of the brilliant *Abclard*, the first man who dared to attack the traditional teaching of the Church.

The study by Italian artists and scholars of Greek classical works aroused a general interest in Hellenic literature and philosophy. The independent thought of the old Greek authors soon led their new Italian pupils away from the blind obedience to authority. A more inquisitive, original generation of men was bred up,

which advanced the bounds of human knowledge and skill in many directions. This great intellectual outburst in Italy is called the '*Renaissance*' (= new birth). It started late in the fourteenth century, and got an additional impulse by the fall of Constantinople, 1453, when many Greek scholars fled from the Byzantine capital to the Italian cities. The Renaissance in Italy matured the finest masterworks of *painting* which the world owns. But all branches of art and literature rose to new perfection. Scientific inquiry also made advances, and led to wonderful discoveries. The movement spread to France, Germany, and England, everywhere rousing men's minds to new energy.

The German *Copernicus* (1473-1543) established the fact that the earth revolves around the sun, which is the central luminary in a system of planets similar to the earth. Until the discovery of the '*Copernican System*' all people had believed in the '*Ptolemaic System*,' which taught that the earth was the centre of the universe. The Italian mathematician *Galileo* (1564-1642) was the first to use a *telescope* for the study of heavenly bodies. He confirmed the truth of the Copernican system, and made many important scientific discoveries. As his works were considered subversive of Church doctrines, he was imprisoned, and was forced to abjure what he had written in support of the Copernican system.

The men who were devoted to the study of Greek literature became known as the *Humanists*. The humanistic movement soon dominated higher education all over Europe,



COPERNICUS

and has kept its place until the end of the nineteenth century.

In religion the revival of learning led many men to doubt the correctness of Church doctrines, and to criticise openly some abuses in the Church administration. Thus the way was prepared for the *Reformation*, which agitated Europe during the first centuries of the modern era.

The revival of learning was quickened by the improvements made in the art of *printing* about the close of the Middle Ages. The most ingenious invention in this line was made about 1438 by *John Gutenberg*, a printer in the German city of Mainz. He devised *movable types*, so that the letters used in printing a page could be taken apart and put together again for printing another page. The new process cheapened books so as to put them in reach of all except the very poor. By the aid of this improved printing press the pen became in fact a weapon more powerful than the sword. 1

Printing, as well as gunpowder and the mariner's compass, seems to have been brought to the West from China. The first use of these three inventions cannot be clearly traced.

The compass did for the bold sailors of the new times what the press did for the reformers.

PART III. MODERN HISTORY

SECTION I

FROM THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA TO THE FRENCH
REVOLUTION, 1492 TO 1789

CHAPTER XXII

THE PERIOD OF DISCOVERY; PORTUGUESE AND
SPANISH COLONIES

The Search for a New Route to the East.—Since the establishment of Turkish rule over the Eastern Mediterranean, the Italian merchants found their trade in Indian and Chinese products at the mercy of their Moslem enemies. All the old trade routes to the Far East had fallen into Turkish hands. The wish to avoid the exactions of the Turkish government turned many navigators to the search for a new route. Beside the Italians, the Portuguese were most active in their daring voyages of discovery. The small kingdom of Portugal had been built up by successful warfare against the Moors. Its extension on the Spanish peninsula was prevented by the growth of the stronger monarchy of Spain. So the Portuguese

sovereigns looked for new lands beyond the sea. Under *Henry the Navigator* (died 1463) the west coast of Africa was methodically explored. In 1486 Bartholomew Dias rounded the Cape of Good Hope, thus reaching a point from which ships could easily sail on to India. Eleven years later *Vasco da Gama* landed at Calicut, on the west coast of India, and



VASCO DA GAMA AND THE ZAMORIN.

so completed that series of discoveries for which the Portuguese were rewarded with a commercial empire.

Columbus.—While the Portuguese seamen strove to find a way around Africa, the Genoese *Christopher Columbus* devised a bolder and, as he thought, simpler plan. He believed in a theory then held only by a few educated men—namely, that the earth was a sphere. The people believed, and the Church taught, that the earth was flat. Columbus expected to reach the East by sailing westward around the

globe. His calculation was correct, save for the one error that he underestimated the size of the earth.

For many years Columbus could get no one to believe in him. The government of Genoa, the king of Portugal, and the king of England all refused to give him ships for such a mad enterprise. At last the Spanish queen, Isabella, promised her support. In the year of the fall of Granada, 1492, Columbus left the Spanish port of Palos with three small vessels.

On September 6th he left the Canary Islands, the westernmost land then known, and steered boldly ever westward across the vast Atlantic. The crews began to give themselves up as lost when after three weeks no land came in sight. In their despair they almost mutinied, but Columbus remained unshaken. The great reward came to him on October 12, 1492, when he landed on one of the Bahama islands. He also discovered Cuba and other islands of the group now known as the West Indies, and then returned home.

Columbus never was suitably rewarded for his incalculable service to the Spanish crown. At first Ferdinand and Isabella showered honours and promises on the explorer. Later, however, they listened to the slanders of his enemies, and even ordered his arrest. From a third voyage to the New World he was sent back as a prisoner in chains. The royal pair felt ashamed of their ingratitude, but never made proper amends. The most illustrious of all discoverers died as a poor and broken-hearted man.

The Naming of America.—Columbus believed to his end that he had discovered a part of Asia. He spoke of the natives as *Indians*, a name they have kept, though they are

called 'American Indians,' to distinguish them from the East Indians of India. The error of Columbus is also perpetuated in the name of the 'West India' islands. When it finally grew evident that a new continent lay between the Atlantic Ocean and Asia, a curious chance fixed on the country the name of 'America.' *Amerigo Vespucci*, a learned Florentine, made a voyage to the coast of South America in 1500, and drew some maps of the New World. A few years later a German professor made a map on which he named the new continent *America*, after Amerigo.

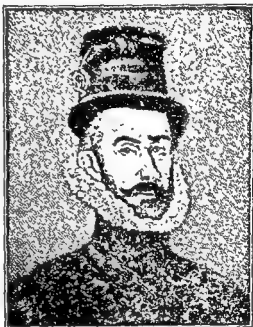
Portuguese Colonization.—When Vasco da Gama returned to Lisbon from India, in 1499, the king of Portugal assumed the title of 'Lord of the Conquest, Navigation, and Commerce of Ethiopia (=Africa), Arabia, Persia, and India.' For about a century the trade between Europe and Asia, by way of the Cape, remained in Portuguese hands.

The Portuguese conquest of the Indian coast was disputed by the Venetians and Egyptians; for Alexandria and Venice were still carrying on a considerable Eastern trade by way of the Red Sea. But the first governor of the vice-royalty of India, *Almeida*, shattered the combined Egyptian and Venetian forces. He gave the death blow to the commercial cities of the Mediterranean.

From *Goa* in India the Portuguese merchants soon penetrated still further eastward. They conquered Malacca, appeared at Canton in 1516, and presently carried on trade with several Chinese ports. The settlement of *Macao*, near Canton, established before 1540, remained a centre of Portuguese commerce until it was outstripped by the British colony of Hongkong.

The sole purpose of the Portuguese was to get profits by trade. They did not open mines, cultivate land, or encourage the development of new industries. Their career in the East was stained by treachery, cruelty, and even piracy. The bad behaviour of the Portuguese made an unfortunate beginning of the relations between Eastern and European nations.

Spanish Colonization.—The Spaniards were at first regarded as gods by the natives of America. The use of firearms, cavalry, and steel armour really gave the invaders a superiority, against which the gentle Indians were quite defenceless.



CORTES.

The most civilized aborigines were those of *Mexico* and of *Peru*. They built cities, constructed bridges and aqueducts, worshipped in fine temples, and lived under regulated governments. When the Spaniards heard that these people were rich in gold and silver, they at once set out to rob them. Hernando Cortez captured the strong city of Mexico, and Francisco Pizarro overthrew the dynasty of the Incas in Peru. The bravery of these Spanish adventurers was just as

remarkable as was their cruelty and treachery. The wealth gained by their conquests was beyond the dreams of avarice. When the last king of Peru had fallen into Pizarro's hands, the latter promised to release the prisoner on payment of a room full of gold. The gold, worth about seventeen million gold dollars, was paid, and—the king was put to death.

Spanish colonists in great numbers soon settled in the newly won dominions. They practised agriculture, worked gold and silver mines, and brought with them all the customs and institutions of their home country. The natives had to work as slaves for their foreign masters. When the Indians began to die out from overwork, black slaves were imported from Africa. Millions of negroes were gradually brought across the sea like cattle. Their descendants now form a part of the American population. The Spaniards occupied the West India islands, most of South and Central America, and a great part of North America. Their principal settlements were in Peru, on the Pacific coast, from where the silver mines sent a steady stream of wealth into the Spanish treasury. The might of the Spanish kings during the sixteenth century was chiefly maintained by the immense revenue from the American mines.

CHAPTER XXIII

THE ZENITH OF OTTOMAN POWER

Mohammad II. (1451-1481).—The Conqueror of Constantinople was but 23 years of age at the time of his supreme triumph. The crowning glory of his house had been achieved, but Mohammad was the very last man to rest on his laurels, and the remainder of his reign made it clear to the world that the House of Othman, far from having reached the limit of its power, had merely entered upon a new stage of aggrandizement.

Almost immediately after the fall of Constantinople the Morea, Servia, and Bosnia were conquered. Italy and Germany would have been in the greatest danger had it not been for the heroic resistance of Scanderbeg and Hunyades. The former by holding out in Albania for many years prevented the Sultan from invading Italy, and it was not till late in Mohammad's reign that he was overpowered and Albania and Herzegovina reduced to submission. Hunyades and the famous St. John Capristan, by their gallant and successful defence of Belgrade in 1456, performed an equally great service for Western Christendom, for if Belgrade had fallen, Hungary and the German States would undoubtedly have been menaced.

While experiencing these checks on the western frontiers of his empire, Mohammad was entirely successful in Asia. The princes of Caramania, who had long resisted the Ottomans, were finally subdued, and the important cities of Sinope and Trebizond were annexed. In 1478 the Grand Vízier, Ahmad Keduk, led a successful expedition to the Crimea, then occupied by the Genoese, and captured immense spoil. The Khans of the Crim Tartars remained the vassals of the Sultans for three centuries.

The conquest of the chief islands of the Greek Archipelago and the defeat of Scanderbeg brought the Turks into contact with the Venetians. In 1477 the Sultan's army occupied the country at the head of the Adriatic. The citizens of Venice had the humiliation of actually seeing the enemy plundering and burning the villages on the mainland, and were glad at the end of the year to sign a treaty which left them in possession of their own city.

Mohammad's greatest ambition was to conquer Italy. The north-eastern approach to the peninsula now lay open to him, but before devoting his full resources to this campaign he determined first to subdue an enemy nearer home. On the island of Rhodes, the Knights of St. John remained free from the Sultan's authority. Accordingly in 1480 a large fleet and army was sent to reduce their fortress. In spite of the skill and courage of the Grand Master, Peter d'Aubusson, the Knights must have succumbed, had it not been that an order of the Turkish commander forbidding all plunder so disgusted his soldiers that

they refused to continue the attack. Rhodes remained independent for another fifty years.

At the same time as this failure against the Knights, Ahmad Keduk, the conqueror of the Crimea, captured Otranto in the south of Italy. In the next year Mohammad ordered the fitting out of a great expedition, the destination of which he confided to no one. Probably Italy was the intended victim, though we can never know for certain, for the sudden death of the Sultan put an end to the preparations. Italy was saved from whatever danger may have threatened her, and in the next reign the Turks were forced to abandon Otranto, nor did they ever again occupy Italian soil.

Salim I. (1512-1518).—Bayazid II., the son of the Conqueror, after an *inglorious reign of thirty-one* years was deposed by his son Salim. Up to this time no Ottoman ruler had been forced to abdicate, and it is worthy of note that the first of his line to fall short of the standard set by his great predecessors met with the fate which in later times became the common penalty of inefficiency.

In the whole of Turkish history there is no more striking personality than Salim I. A brilliant soldier and statesman and a man of high literary ability, he was without doubt one of the most gifted of his race, but his savage cruelty, vented alike on friend and foe, and his total disregard of the value of human life must always cast a dark shadow on his name.

His short reign was one of unceasing energy and splendid success. *Abandoning for a time the designs* of his grandfather for further expansion in Europe, he set himself to enlarge his Empire at the expense of

other Moslem countries. His hatred of the Shi'ah was to a large extent the cause of this policy, and the severe measures he took against his Shi'i subjects had the immediate result of war with Persia.

The Shah Ismail was at this time on the throne of Persia. He had already gained great military renown in the East, and was not afraid to measure his strength against the Sultan's. He now befriended Salim's nephew, who had taken refuge in Persia, and declared his intention of placing him on the Ottoman throne. The Sultan was equally determined to crush the Shah, whom he regarded as a heretic. In 1514, at the head of a great army, he invaded Persia, passing through Diarbakr and Kurdistan. Ismail wisely played a waiting game. Avoiding a pitched battle, he laid waste the country through which the Turks had to pass, thereby causing them great hardships. When the two armies met at last in the valley of Calderan, the Turks were weary from their long march, and the Persians confident of success. The cavalry of the latter, however, on which the Shah relied entirely, was unable to stand against the artillery and muskets of the invaders, and the battle ended in a complete victory for the Sultan. After entering Tabriz, then the capital of Persia, and ordering 1000 of the best artisans to be sent to Constantinople, Salim, for once yielding to the wish of others, led his tired troops homewards. The result of the expedition was the annexation of Diarbakr and Kurdistan.

The Conquest of Egypt, which was the other great achievement of Salim I., has been recorded elsewhere. A few words may be added, however, on its importance

from the Ottoman point of view. Besides increase in wealth and territory this conquest gave to the House of Othman the prestige which it has held ever since in the Moslem world: The title of Khalif was transferred from the Abbasid family to the Ottoman Sultan and his successors, and the protectorship of the holy cities of Arabia, which had been under the suzerainty of the Mamluk Sultans, now passed from Cairo to Constantinople.

Suleiman I. (1520-1566).—The reign of Suleiman the Magnificent was in every way the most glorious period of Ottoman history. Under this great ruler, justly called by his countrymen, "The Lord of his Age," the Ottoman Empire enjoyed a position among the nations of the world which it had never before attained and which no subsequent Sultan has succeeded in regaining. Throughout Europe the sixteenth century was one of progress and enlightenment. The chaos of the Middle Ages was at an end. The revival of learning, the wealth of the New World, and the centralizing of authority in the hands of strong and able monarchs were leading to the more orderly and prosperous conditions of the modern epoch. In this general advance, the Turks not only kept pace with the times, but in many ways showed superiority over all other nations. In military organization, especially with regard to artillery, they were ahead of all their rivals; while in the financial and judicial administration of his Empire, in his own high character and ability in war and peace, Suleiman can more than bear comparison with any of the great sovereigns of his time.

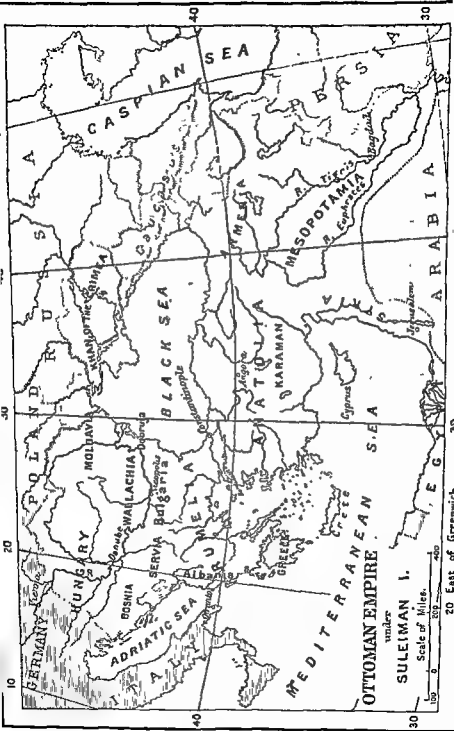
In the annals of a warlike race military glory must always be the surest path to fame, and judged in the light of his conquests Suleiman was at least the equal of Mohammad II. and Salim I. In almost all the qualities that make for true greatness he was immeasurably their superior.

At the very outset of his reign Suleiman gained two successes where Mohammad the Conqueror had failed. He captured Belgrade in 1521, and in the following year led a great expedition against the Knights of Rhodes. The Grand Master at this time was De Lisle Adam, and under his guidance the Knights again offered a gallant resistance. But Suleiman's attack was masterly. Having failed to take the fortress by storm, he decided not to waste his strength by useless deeds of bravery, but to employ instead more scientific methods. By digging trenches and step by step advancing his artillery nearer to the walls (a plan which the Turks are said to have introduced), he made victory certain, and offered honourable terms of surrender, which the Knights had the good sense to accept. On being allowed to quit Rhodes with their families and property, they now established themselves at Malta, which was given them as a reward for their bravery by the Emperor Charles V.

✓ In 1526 Suleiman invaded Hungary and gained an overwhelming victory at Mohacs. The young king, Louis, and most of the Magyar nobles were slain. Buda-Pesth surrendered, and after devastating the whole country and satisfying the lust of his soldiers for plunder, the victorious Sultan returned home with 100,000 captives.

The First Siege of Vienna (1529).—Ferdinand of Austria, brother of the Emperor Charles V., now claimed the throne of Hungary as the brother-in-law of King Louis, who had died without issue. But the Hungarians, who declared that only a native could succeed, elected a noble, named Zapolya, as their king. Civil war broke out, and Zapolya, on being defeated by the Austrians, appealed to the Sultan for help. Suleiman promised to befriend him, for by so doing he found a pretext for surpassing all the former enterprises of his house by advancing on Vienna itself.

In the spring of 1529 he set out on this famous campaign with an army of 250,000 men and 300 cannons. Buda was captured a second time without difficulty, and Zapolya crowned king. Vienna was not reached till the autumn, for an exceptionally wet season had made marching difficult. The garrison did not number more than 16,000, and against such an enormous force there seemed to be but small hope of a successful defence. But owing to the bad weather the Turks had been obliged to leave many of their heaviest cannons in Hungary, and thus the attack was limited to mines and assault. The Count of Salm, who was in charge of the defence, wisely ordered all non-combatants to leave the city. His skill and energy saved Vienna. On four successive days the besiegers made desperate efforts to take the city by storm, and on each of these they seemed to lose and their opponents to gain strength. When the siege had lasted a little more than a fortnight, Suleiman ordered his troops to retreat. It was his first reverse, and one which no



subsequent triumphs were able to obliterate from his mind.

The war continued till 1533, when a peace was made by which Hungary was divided between Ferdinand and Zapolya. On the death of the latter, however, in 1539, Ferdinand claimed the whole kingdom, and Suleiman again invaded Hungary. On this occasion the Sultan was not content with plunder and devastation, but followed up his success by placing Turkish garrisons in the chief towns and by making Ottoman provinces of the country that he conquered. The truce which was concluded in 1547 between Austria and Turkey shows the greatness of Suleiman's power in Europe, for Ferdinand not only allowed the Sultan's right to Hungary and Transylvania, but also agreed to pay him 30,000 ducats a year. The humiliation of the House of Hapsburg would probably have been greater, had it not been that during the Hungarian wars much of Suleiman's attention and resources were being devoted to Persia, with whom there was almost constant warfare. Though not always successful in the East, the Sultan added to his dominions a great portion of Armenia and Mesopotamia, including the historic city of Baghdad.

Turkish Admirals.—The exploits of Suleiman's navies were almost as great as those of his armies. In the great age of discovery, when nautical science was advancing by leaps and bounds, the Turkish fleets were feared not only in the Mediterranean but also in the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. For this additional glory to his reign the Sultan was chiefly indebted to the skill and daring of his admirals, who repaid with

brilliant victories the encouragement which he always gave to naval enterprise.

The most famous of these admirals was Khayr ad-Din Pasha, better known in Europe as Barbarossa. Starting as a pirate, he became the master of many North African ports. He then declared his allegiance to the Turkish Sultan and was made Beyler Bey of Algiers by Salim I. In 1533 Suleiman gave him the command of the Turkish fleet against Doria, the Genoese admiral of Charles V. Having repulsed the Genoese, Barbarossa proceeded to plunder the coast of Italy and to capture Tunis, then ruled by a Moorish prince. This prince begged the Emperor to help him, and Charles himself crossed to Africa with such a powerful force that Barbarossa was unable to hold the city, which was sacked by its so-called protector. In 1538 he defeated the combined fleets of the Pope, the Emperor, and Venice in the battle of Prevesa, and three years later defended Algiers against Charles, though the failure of the latter on this occasion was chiefly due to a storm which destroyed his ships. The active service of Barbarossa ended in 1543, when he was sent to the aid of Suleiman's ally, Francis I., and captured Nice from the Spaniards. The few remaining years of his life he spent as Capitan Pasha in Constantinople, where he still served his master by giving his advice on naval affairs.

The exploits of Barbarossa were confined to the Mediterranean, the honour of extending the Sultan's power to the coasts of Arabia, Persia and India being left to other commanders, among whom may be mentioned Piri Reis and Sidi Ali. These two were

distinguished for their literary as well as for their nautical achievements, for the former was the author of a geographical work on the Mediterranean Sea, and the latter was both a mathematician and a poet.

Another admiral, Pialé Pasha, gained a great victory over Doria off the island of Djerbé in 1560. The Genoese commander was also harassed on several occasions by yet another Turkish sailor, Dragut, who had served under Barbarossa, and who ended a daring career at the Siege of Malta.

The Knights of St. John, now established at Malta, were a constant source of annoyance to the Turkish fleets on the Mediterranean. At the close of Suleiman's reign the third great conflict between the Sublime Porte and this gallant Order took place. In 1565 a mighty Ottoman force, led by Mostafa Pasha, Pialé, and Dragut, set sail for Malta, and for four months there raged one of the most desperate sieges of history. In their Grand Master, John de la Vallette, the Knights found once more a leader of consummate ability, and, with such a commander, the strength of their fortifications, and their own heroism, proved too much for the besiegers, who were at last obliged to abandon the siege. The fierceness of the fighting may be judged from the fact that out of a garrison of 9000 only 600 were fit for service when the Turks left the island.

Death of Suleiman.—At the age of 76 the great Sultan left Constantinople on his last campaign. The Austrians, under the young Emperor Maximilian II., had captured Tokay in Hungary, and Suleiman, now carried in a litter, once more invaded that country. While besieging the citadel of Szigeth, the aged

warrior died in his tent. It was not, however, for forty-eight days that the news was announced to the army, for the Grand Vizier Sokolli had kept it a strict secret until he heard that Prince Salim had been enthroned at Constantinople. During this time the corpse had been carried in the royal litter, and the soldiers had marched and fought and taken towns in the name of their dead Padishah.

Salim II. (1566-1574).—The greatest of the Sultans was succeeded by the cruel and worthless drunkard, generally known as "Salim the Sot." This reign is the turning-point in the history of the Ottoman Turks. Hitherto they had been ruled, with one exception, by Sultans of great energy and ability, and their power had steadily increased; from the time of Salim onwards great Sultans have been few and far between, and with his accession the decline of the Ottoman Empire may be said to have begun. No sudden change, however, was apparent on the death of the great Suleiman. The fabric which he had built could not be overthrown in a moment, and his spirit was still living in the statesmen and generals who had worked under his guidance. His Grand Vizier, Sokolli, was the real ruler of the Empire throughout the reign of the degenerate Salim, and it was not till he and his contemporaries had passed away that the incapacity and folly of the new type of Sultans made itself felt.

It is a remarkable fact that in this reign the Turks waged their first war with the Russians, who were afterwards to be the chief external cause of their decline. Sokolli sent an expedition into Russia to make a canal from the Don to the Volga, in order

that Turkish fleets might enter the Caspian Sea, whose southern shores would then be used as a base of operations against Persia. The Turkish workmen and soldiers were defeated by the Russians at both Astrakhan and Azof, and the scheme had to be abandoned. Russia was not yet strong enough, however, to be of any danger to Turkey, and it was nearly a century before another war took place between the two countries.

The Battle of Lepanto (1571).—In 1570 the Turks captured Cyprus from the Venetians. This new conquest and the naval supremacy which the Turks were acquiring in the Mediterranean led to the formation of a maritime league against them. The Spaniards, the Venetians, and the Knights of Malta collected a great fleet, the command of which was given to Don John of Austria, the half-brother of Philip II. of Spain. The Turkish fleet was placed under the Capitan Pasha, Mouezinzade Ali, who was assisted by several able admirals, including the celebrated Ouloudj Ali. On the 7th October, 1571, at the mouth of the Gulf of Lepanto the two great armaments met and fought one of the most memorable battles in naval history. The great Venetian ships, armed with the largest cannon that had yet been used in naval warfare, had a large share in deciding the issue of the day. The fierce hand-to-hand contest which was waged between the crews of the two flagships set an example of bravery all along the line, and it was not till the Capitan Pasha was shot dead that the victory of the Austrians was assured. The Turks lost 260 ships, captured or destroyed,

and would have ceased to exist as a naval power had it not been for the daring resource of Ouloudj Ali, who, having been successful in his part of the battle, but seeing the hopeless plight of his countrymen elsewhere, decided to save what he could for the Sultan, and escaped with 40 ships to the open sea.

The splendid victory of Lepanto brought very little material gain to Christendom. The leaders of the league quarrelled over the spoil instead of following up their success. In less than a year, thanks to the ceaseless energy of Ouloudj Ali, now Capitan Pasha, the Ottomans were once more strong on the Mediterranean, and in 1573 made peace with Venice on condition that they should retain Cyprus. But though the Turks lost so little, the moral gain to Christendom was far reaching. The battle of Lepanto showed that the Ottoman arms were not invincible. For the first time a crusade against the House of Ottoman had proved successful, with the result that it was now felt throughout Europe that in future the West would be able to hold its own.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE PERIOD OF RELIGIOUS WARS

Causes of the Reformation.—The Reformation in the central and northern countries of Europe was a revolt against the supremacy of Rome, which led to the establishment of a reformed Christianity, called *Protestantism*. At the same time the political influence of the Papacy was fully cast off by the reformed countries.

The chief causes of the Reformation were : (1) The renewed intellectual activity, which led men to question tradition and authority in *religion* as well as in other fields of thought ; (2) the revolt against the interference by the Church in temporal matters ; and (3) abuses within the Church itself.

Extent of the Reformation.—Religious struggles dominated the history of Europe during a period extending from the start of the sixteenth until the middle of the seventeenth century. Germany was the storm centre from which the revolt spread to Switzerland, France, the Netherlands, England, and the Scandinavian countries. In all these countries, save France, the greater part of the population was lost to the Papacy. The terrible Thirty Years' War

in Germany (1618-1648) marked the climax and close of the armed conflicts engendered by religious dissension. After that the religious element gradually subsided, being replaced by political rivalries between the different states.

Charles V. (1519-1556).—A well-known Latin verse, current during the sixteenth century, said, "Let others wage war, thou, happy Austria, make marriages." In fact, the Hapsburg family of Austria acquired



EMPEROR CHARLES V.

greater power by fortunate marriages, than other dynasties gained by war. The most notable of their political marriages was that of the Archduke Philip to the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. From this union sprang a son *Charles*, who became king of Spain, archduke of Austria, ruler of the Netherlands, and of several lesser dependencies. As

lord of the rich American colonies he could proudly claim that the sun never set in his dominions. In 1519 he was also elected to the sovereignty of the Holy Roman empire, thus completing a power wider than any Western Europe had seen since the death of Charlemagne.

Rivalry of Francis I. and Charles V.—The emperor could easily have crushed the Protestant movement, had his energies not been diverted by two formidable enemies, Francis I. and Suleiman, the Turkish Sultan. *Francis I.* was an ambitious, warlike monarch, a rival who strained every resource to humble the power of Charles V. After Francis had lost the imperial throne—he had bitterly contested the candidacy of Charles for that dignity—he spent the greater part of his long reign in warring and plotting against the emperor. The quarrel between these two sovereigns kept Europe in a turmoil for a quarter of a century (1521-1544). Neither party gained any decisive advantage, while the Turks reaped their harvest in Hungary.

In spite of his vast resources, Charles V. saw his dearest plans come to nothing. He could not crush France, and he could not extinguish Protestantism. He at first defeated the Protestant princes, but afterwards they rose against him and almost made him prisoner. By the Peace of Augsburg (1555) every prince and every free city in Germany could establish either religion, but the subjects had to accept the decision of their rulers. After this the emperor became weary of his fruitless struggles, and retired into a monastery. The crown of Spain, with the colonies* and the Netherlands, fell to his son Philip.

The Huguenot Wars in France.—The Protestants in France were called *Huguenots*. They were mostly members of the upper classes, and early associated with their religious faith the striving to

obtain more political independence for the nobility. Francis I. burned many heretics at the stake, and his successor, Henry II., continued the Huguenot persecutions, whenever he had a respite from foreign wars.

After Henry II.'s death, in 1559, the throne fell successively to his three sons, who all were weak rulers. The Catholic and Protestant parties kept up a constant struggle for influence in the government. The Catholic party was led by the great family of the *Guises*, while the admiral *de Coligny* was the ablest Protestant leader. Between these two factions, but inclining more to the Catholic side, stood the widow of Henry II., *Catherine de Medici*, by birth an Italian princess. She always kept a strong hold on the minds of her sons, and at times enjoyed a practical control over the royal policy.

Fired by personal ambition, gifted with a statesman's ability, but without moral scruples, Catherine used the rival parties as tools for her personal ends. The most awful atrocities of a bitter civil war were largely the fruit of her intrigues, so that she can justly be branded as the evil genius of her adopted country.

Open war began in 1562. After eight years of fighting the Huguenots gained a limited freedom of religious worship. Their position was much improved by the vast designs of the Catholic king, Philip II. of Spain. This monarch had set out to crush Protestantism in the Netherlands, and to dethrone the Protestant queen, Elizabeth of England. Fearing lest the success of Philip's plans might make him so powerful as to put France at his mercy, the

French king, Charles IX., inclined to a general alliance of Protestants against Spain. Admiral Coligny now was the king's trusted adviser, and the Huguenots felt jubilant.

The Guises and the queen mother were in despair. Wholesale assassination seemed to them the only way to save their cause. A secret conspiracy was set on foot, and in one night nearly all Huguenots in Paris were murdered. Many were stabbed while asleep. This bloody crime is known as the *Massacre of St. Bartholomew* (1572). The murderous frenzy then spread to the provinces, where many thousands of Protestants were butchered.

The struggle continued until 1598, when Henry IV., a strong and able king, ended it for a while by the *Edict of Nantes*. By this order the Huguenots obtained equal political rights and a limited freedom of worship.

The repressive measures taken against the Huguenots under later sovereigns were due rather to political than to religious motives, as will be set forth later.

Philip II.—Philip II., ruler by hereditary right of Spain, the Netherlands, Southern Italy, and other states, was after the death of his father, Charles V., the most powerful sovereign in Europe. He made the spread of the Catholic faith and the uprooting of heresy his chief work. His natural temperament was morose and tyrannical. His education had been that of a monk. Monks and priests remained his closest companions through life. Outside of Madrid, the Spanish capital, Philip built an immense

palace in the style of a monastery, the famous *Escorial*. A small gloomy cell in the *Escorial* was his favourite abode, and from this place of darkness he misgoverned the most splendid realm of his time.

Philip fought Protestantism with all his might. The gold and silver of America, the genius of great generals, the services of paid assassins, were all used against the heretics in France, in England, and in the Netherlands. But all his bigoted efforts failed to turn Europe back to the Middle Ages. The spirit of liberty triumphed, while Philip ruined the Spanish administration, and so prepared the speedy downfall of his country.

Philip II. and Protestant England.—For some years Philip was married to the Catholic queen, *Mary Tudor* of England, the daughter of Henry VIII. by his Spanish wife Catherine. On Mary's death *Elizabeth*, who was the daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, succeeded to the throne. Philip had hoped that the Catholic queen, Mary Stuart of Scotland, would become queen of England. His distress at seeing the island under Protestant rule grew to rage, when Mary Stuart had to pay with her life for complicity in a plot against Elizabeth. He now determined to conquer England and to make an end of Elizabeth and her Protestant government. An immense fleet, famous under the boastful name of the 'Invincible Armada,' descended on England in 1588. The English sailors outclassed the Spaniards both in courage and in seamanship. From their smaller but quicker vessels they fired deadly shot into the high

Spanish ships, sinking many of them. A violent storm wrecked most of the rest on the Scotch and Irish coasts. Spain never again was in a position to threaten England.



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

Philip and the Netherlands.—The worst thorn in Philip's flesh was the spread of Protestantism in his own dominions of the Netherlands. The Low Countries or Netherlands were so called from their being situated below the sea level. The Dutch had won new and fertile land by building dikes out into

the shallow North Sea, and pumping the areas inside of the dikes dry with windmills. Their patient struggle against the ocean had steeled their courage and quickened their enterprise. The old ocean bottom inside the seawalls was converted into fat fields and pastures, while the harbours were crowded



PHILIP II.

with merchant vessels plying to ports all over the world. No other people of Europe could show such extensive manufactures or boast of so much wealth as the Dutch.

Charles V. had dealt severely with the Protestants in the Netherlands. When Philip II. took over the government, he resolved to extirpate heresy at all costs. The people would have submitted to a certain amount of re-

ligious persecution, for toleration was not to be expected in any country at that age. But when Philip's regent joined to these terrors a repressive government, which robbed the natives of their old privileges, the people broke out in open revolt. The Catholic churches were sacked, and priceless treasures of art were destroyed by the 'image breakers.'

Philip now appointed the Duke of *Alva*, an able but merciless Spanish general, as governor of the

Netherlands. Alva ordered all the prominent patriots, who had not found safety in other countries, to be executed. A special court, called by the people the *Council of Blood*, condemned thousands to death and confiscation of property. Instead of pacifying the provinces, Alva's cruelties drove them into organized revolt.

William of Orange.—

The leader of the revolt was Prince *William of Orange*, also called William the Silent. He had been trained in the Catholic faith at the court of Charles V., and had been entrusted with the governorship of three Dutch provinces. He took the lead in the protest against the tyrannical policy of the regent.



WILLIAM OF ORANGE.

On the arrival of Alva William escaped to Germany, openly espoused Protestantism, and gathered an army for the expulsion of the Spaniards.

Now began the long, unequal struggle of the Dutch patriots against the mighty Spanish empire. It forms one of the most inspiring episodes in history. In vain did Philip send his ablest generals, commanding the best trained soldiers in Europe. They could inflict defeats on William and the

Dutch burghers, but they could not beat them into submission.

The Siege of Leyden.—In 1574 the city of *Leyden* was closely besieged by the Spaniards. No one could leave the town, and no food could come to the starving inhabitants. The fall of Leyden would have involved the ruin of the Dutch cause. When despair began to seize the besieged people, they suddenly beheld Dutch ships sailing across the fields to the relief of the city. The Dutch had broken the dikes and let in the North Sea. When the floods approached Leyden, the Spaniards beat a hasty retreat, and the city was saved.

Rise of the Dutch Republic.—In 1579 the seven northern provinces by the *Union of Utrecht* joined into a federal republic, with William of Orange as 'stadtholder,' or governor general. Two years later the new commonwealth renounced its allegiance to King Philip. Thus began the Dutch Republic.

Assassination of William the Silent; His Character.—Philip II. tried to win William to his side by promises of wealth and high office. When bribery failed to move the incorruptible patriot, Philip published a ban against him. "If any one, . . ." so concluded the ban, "should be found sufficiently generous of heart to rid us of this pest, . . . taking his life, we will cause to be furnished to him . . . the sum of twenty-five thousand crowns in gold. If he have committed any crime, however heinous, we promise to pardon him; and if he be not already noble, we will ennoble him for his valour."

In answer to this infamous document William wrote his celebrated 'Apology.' This was a kind of political manifesto, which was translated into the

chief European languages, and in which William of Orange justified his own course before the whole world. He also denounced the treachery and the political crimes of the Spanish king in scathing terms. The justice of William's cause could not protect his life: after several attempts to kill him had miscarried, he was shot by an assassin, whose family afterwards got the promised reward.

William of Orange is ranked, like George Washington, as the 'Father of his Country.' For nearly twenty years he was the soul and brain of the revolt, and his assassination really had for Philip the value of several victories in the field. His fortune, his life, and all his talents as a commander, a statesman, and an orator, were devoted to the good of his country. Among the many base slanders which his enemies used to spread, one real fault is acknowledged by most historians: he is said to have used deceit in his diplomatic dealings. Even if the charge is justified, it can only slightly tarnish his fame as the maker of his nation.

End of the Struggle.—Spain continued the war after the death of William, but the Dutch held their own, thanks largely to help from the English queen Elizabeth. In 1648 the Spanish government formally acknowledged the independence of the seven United Provinces. The southern provinces, which now constitute the kingdom of Belgium, kept the Spanish sovereignty and the Catholic religion.

Effects of the War on the Netherlands.—By a general law of natural development nothing helps men forward better than a well-directed struggle against great odds. War, with all its horrors, may prove to be a school for training national greatness and for preparing future successes. This was eminently true in the case of the Dutch fight for liberty. The

inherent fine qualities of the Dutch people were forced to an amazing development. Their industry and trade flourished more than at any previous time. The Dutch navy tore the best East Indian colonies from Spanish and Portuguese possession, and established an empire over sea. The population of the Netherlands increased in numbers and in wealth, while their standard of education was superior to that of all neighbouring countries.

The Thirty Years' War (1618-1648) owed its origin chiefly to some unsatisfactory clauses in the religious peace of Augsburg. A newer form of Protestantism had not been recognized in that treaty, and its numerous adherents had no rights. One clause, called the 'Ecclesiastical Reservation,' demanded that all Church lands in Protestant Germany should remain Catholic, thus being practically withdrawn from the jurisdiction of the Protestant governments. The Protestants refused to give up the Church lands. While these and other disputes kept up the bitter feeling, the Protestants were losing some of their early energy. The Catholic counter reformation, on the other hand, had immensely strengthened its party in Southern Germany. The duke *Maximilian I. of Bavaria* and the emperor *Ferdinand II.* of the Austrian Hapsburg line had been educated by Jesuits, and were entirely under Jesuit influence. When in 1608 several Protestant states tried to strengthen their cause by forming the '*Evangelical Union*,' Maximilian shortly united his party in the '*Catholic League*.' Thus Germany was sharply divided into two hostile camps.

The Bohemian and the Danish Period of the War (1618-1629)—In 1618 the Protestant Bohemians rebelled against the oppression of the Hapsburg

government. With the aid of the Evangelical Union they were at first successful. But when the fanatical Ferdinand II. became emperor (1619) he brought all his imperial forces, in alliance with an army of Maximilian I. and with some Spanish troops, into the field. By the year 1623 the Protestants were completely beaten, and their religion was extirpated in Bohemia and Austria.

The sudden triumph of the emperor was a menace to the safety of the North German Protestant states. They renewed the war in alliance with the king of Denmark, but sustained disastrous defeats. Thanks to the genius of his general *Wallenstein*, the emperor gained control of all Germany. The war might have been ended now, had Ferdinand II. not issued the unjust '*Edict of Restitution*' (1629), by which all lands affected by the Ecclesiastical Reservation of 1555 were to be taken away from the Protestants. The confiscation of the lands was enforced by the licentious soldiery of Wallenstein, whose barbarities inflamed to the utmost the hatred of the Protestants.

The Swedish Period (1630-1635) introduced political motives into the religious conflict. *Gustavus Adolphus*, the king of Sweden, had hopes of extending his realm south of the Baltic, making that sea into a Swedish lake. The occupation of Baltic ports by the emperor was dangerous for Sweden, while military success against the Catholics might realize the dream of a larger Swedish empire. Gustavus Adolphus landed in Germany with 13,000 men, a force which made up for its smallness by its iron discipline, and by the genius of its commander. As a foreigner, the

Swedish king could not get the hearty support of all German Protestants, although he was the sincerest champion of their faith. Despite the backwardness of the princes, Gustavus Adolphus marched victoriously through Germany, and entered Munich, the

Bavarian capital, as conqueror.

The emperor felt helpless before the irresistible hero of Sweden. The best Catholic generals had fallen, the army of the League had been dispersed. One man there was who could save Ferdinand II. from utter ruin, a man whose military fame equalled that of Gustavus.

It was Wallen-



GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

stein. But at the beginning of the Swedish war the emperor had dismissed Wallenstein, because it was rumoured that the general's boundless ambition would lead him into treachery. In his distress Ferdinand now humbly begged the disgraced leader to resume the command of the imperial forces. Wallenstein complied, on condition of getting dictatorial powers which practically made him independent of the em-

peror. When the news spread that Wallenstein was about to raise an army, the adventurers and cut-throats of Europe all flocked to his banner, all anxious to share the glory and to enjoy the license which were coupled with his name. For he had been accustomed on his campaigns to feed the army by plunder, and to let his brutal soldiers rob and kill innocent people at will.

The two famous commanders met in the murderous battle of *Lützen*, in Saxony (1632). Wallenstein believed the battle to be won, after Gustavus Adolphus had fallen from his horse, pierced by a pistol ball. But the Swedes drove home their attacks with redoubled fury when they learned the death of their idolized king. Darkness at last ended the contest, and Wallenstein had to retreat with the remnants of his forces. The war continued for two years longer, victory being mostly on the Swedish side. Toward the close of this period Wallenstein was assassinated, with the emperor's consent, because he had conspired to join the Swedes against the empire.

The Swedish-French Period (1635-1648).—The French minister *Richelieu*, who was conducting the government for King Louis XIII., had long paid subsidies to the Swedes. His policy had nothing to do with religious questions, but aimed only at the ruin of the Hapsburg dynasty. In order that the French monarchy might rise supreme over all rivals, Germany was devastated for thirteen years longer by the most barbarous soldiery. French generals now also shared in the work of destruction.

Treaty of Westphalia (1648).—The exhaustion of all combatants finally put an end to the war. After five years of negotiating, the celebrated Treaty of Westphalia was agreed upon among the various governments. This treaty was the most notable and



RICHELIEU.

far-reaching agreement that the European states had ever made. Its decisions continued to influence international relations until the French Revolution.

The religious toleration, which had first been proposed in the treaty of Augsburg, was confirmed, and extended to all Protestants. But even now indivi-

dual liberty of conscience was not yet considered, the only concession being this, that citizens who did not want to conform to the state religion could emigrate within three years. The Edict of Restitution was annulled, that is, the Protestants could keep the ecclesiastical lands which they had regarded as their property since 1555.

The treaty provided also for many territorial changes, mostly at the expense of the Hapsburgs. The freedom of the Netherlands and of Switzerland¹ was confirmed. Sweden gained the right to administer parts of the German Baltic coast. France received lands in Alsace and Lorraine near the Rhine. The Elector of Brandenburg (the state from which Prussia sprang) was indemnified for territory lost to Sweden by considerable grants of lands in Middle Germany. This was the first of a series of events by which Prussia gained in power, while Austria declined.

Effects of the Thirty Years' War on Germany.—The annals of Europe tell no other story so terrible and disheartening as that of the Thirty Years' War. For Germany it was an indescribable calamity, without any good after-effects to condone for the sufferings of active warfare. The population was reduced to less than one half. Industry and trade, arts and literature, were all ruined and forgotten. Some

¹ The House of Hapsburg claimed sovereign rights over Switzerland. The liberty-loving Swiss revolted against the foreign rule. In three heroic battles, during the fourteenth century, they defeated the Austrian troops, and practically won their independence. The small Swiss communities owed their strength and their independent spirit to the protection of the Alps Mountains.

districts did not regain their former prosperity until two hundred years after the war.

The political disunion of the country was confirmed and sanctioned by the Treaty of Westphalia. Germany was a great kingdom in name only. Every petty prince was recognized as independent ruler over his small territory, where he usually governed in a wasteful way, aping the absolutism of the neighbouring French monarchy. The national greatness which was Germany's due by reason of her able people, her natural resources, and her central position in Europe, was belated through the lack of internal union until the close of the nineteenth century.

CHAPTER XXV

A CENTURY OF ENGLISH HISTORY, 1558-1660

Introductory.—The period of English history to be treated in this chapter is contemporary with the events just narrated. Thanks to her insular position, England was spared the horrors of religious war which shook Europe for a century. The country was free to take its own course, sharing in European struggles only in so far as it suited the government. It was due mainly to England's isolation, that her people were enabled to rise successfully in defence of their political rights, at the very time when absolutism was perfecting its hold over the down-trodden people of France and the German states.

The chapter will be divided into three periods, dealing with (*a*) the reign of Elizabeth, (*b*) the first period of Stuart rule, and (*c*) the Commonwealth and the Protectorate.

A. THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH, 1558-1603

Elizabeth and Mary Queen of Scots.—When Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, came to the throne, most Englishmen were glad to be rid of the Catholic rule of Queen Mary Tudor and her husband,

Philip II. Spanish influence was to be swept out of the island, and the young queen was to be the leader of a truly Protestant nation. Such was the programme of the Protestants, but not entirely that of Elizabeth. She certainly was obliged to favour Protestantism, her very title to the throne being denied by the extreme

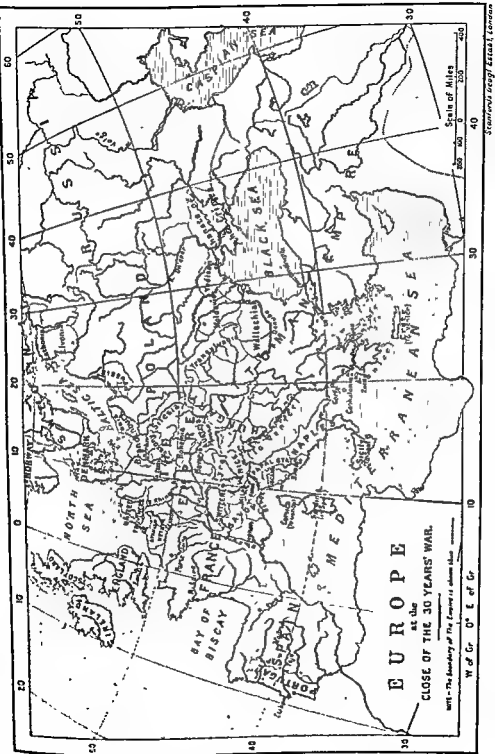


MARY STUART, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

Catholic party, which had never regarded Henry VIII.'s marriage with Anne Boleyn as valid. But Elizabeth placed policy above religion. She ordered the national Church to be so constituted that moderate Protestants as well as loyal Catholics should feel able to conform with its creed. She wished to build up a united nation, rather than to keep the country rent asunder by

religious strife. Her aim was accomplished, and she roused intense patriotism and devotion to the sovereign among her subjects.

The papal party in England, which found its strongest foreign supporter in Philip II., wished to place the Catholic, *Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots*, upon the English throne. Through intermarriage under an earlier reign, the Stuart sovereign of Scotland would have been the legal heir to the English throne,



in case there had been no successor in the Tudor line. But since the great majority of English people loyally supported Elizabeth Tudor, any attempt to set her aside could only be regarded as treason.

Mary Stuart was a woman of remarkable beauty and fascinating temperament, which secured for her many ardent admirers. But during her youth she ruined her career by her strong passions. When her first husband, King Francis II. of France, had died, she assumed the crown of Scotland, and married a Scotch lord, named Darnley. It was commonly known that she had come to despise her husband, when he was suddenly murdered. Mary presently married Bothwell, one of the murderers of Darnley, so that most people believed her guilty of complicity in the crime. The indignant Scots rebelled against the queen and forced her to take refuge at the court of Elizabeth.

The English queen ordered her rival to be held as a prisoner. So long, however, as Mary Stuart was alive, her Catholic supporters did not cease to plot against Elizabeth. Finally, a dangerous plan to assassinate Elizabeth and elevate Mary to the throne was detected, and Mary was accused of having countenanced the attempt. She was condemned to death by the executioner's axe in 1587. Her guilt was never definitely established or wholly disproved, and the controversy has produced a whole library of writings on this dramatic episode. King Philip II.'s reply to the execution of Mary Stuart was the despatch of the Spanish 'Armada' for the conquest of England. His total failure has been related above.

The Growth of English Sea Power and Commerce.—

Under Elizabeth's beneficent rule the English people attained to a material prosperity unknown to former reigns. Foreign commerce was vastly extended, and the English flag was carried to the most distant ports. The ruin of the Spanish Armada served as a special encouragement to the extension of English sea power. The sailors of the Elizabethan age were men of heroic mould, who could dare and do incredible deeds. The story of *Sir Francis Drake* still fires the courage of many



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

a British lad. With three small vessels and a small band of fighting sailors Drake surprised the Spanish settlements in South America, plundered and burned whole fleets and towns, struck across the Pacific while a Spanish squadron vainly lay in wait at the Strait of Magellan, and brought his immense



SIR WALTER RALEIGH

booty safely back to England. He was the first commander to complete the circumnavigation of the globe.

The adventurous voyages of the Elizabethan seamen did not at once lead to any notable results, but they prepared the way for the successful colonizing policy of later years. In the north-east the seaway to Russia was discovered, and regular trade with that country commenced. Sir *Walter Raleigh* sent colonists to the North American coast, but his attempts to colonize failed on account of the attacks of the



SHAKESPEARE.

Indians. Not until 1607 was the first permanent settlement of Jamestown, in Virginia, made by English colonists. The *East India Company* was incorporated in 1600, and thus the first step was taken for the later acquisition of the English empire in India.

Elizabethan Literature.—

The Renaissance bore its richest literary fruit in England during the reign of Elizabeth. The feeling of national greatness, the flood of new ideas brought by the Reformation and by the voyagers returning from strange continents, the enthusiastic devotion to the queen, and the general prosperity of the people, all combined to produce a marvellous outburst of literature. The Elizabethan era was to England what the Augustan age was to Rome: the golden age of literature. The mere mention of the greatest writers must suffice for the purposes of this book: *William Shakespeare*, poet and dramatist, is generally considered as the foremost literary genius of all countries. *Sir Francis Bacon*, philosopher, statesman, and essayist,

founded the inductive system of philosophy. Before him the deductive system only was practised, which relies in its search for truth wholly on reasoning. The inductive system demands that one should try to find out the causes of things by faithful *observation* of actual facts, and by experiments which will aid observation. Modern science rests on the inductive system, being based on a knowledge of *facts*, the result of the arduous labour of the many thousand devoted men who have followed in the footsteps of Bacon.



FRANCIS BACON

B. THE FIRST PERIOD OF STUART RULE

Character of the Period.—King James VI. of Scotland, the son of Mary Stuart, succeeded to the English throne in 1603 as James I., and thus England and Scotland became united under one monarch. The reigns of James I. and his son Charles I. were filled with a struggle between king and Parliament, which ended in the execution of King Charles, and in the temporary establishment of truly parliamentary government.

The Divine Right of Kings.—Under the Tudor sovereigns many popular rights which had been sanctioned by the Magna Charta had been allowed to fall into disuse. By the decline of the nobility after the Wars of the Roses, and through the stress of foreign wars, the sovereigns from Henry VII. to Elizabeth had governed largely without Parliament.

When they convoked Parliament, usually to get a money grant, that body was quite subservient to the royal will. Under these circumstances, connected with the example of royal absolutism in France, many people came to believe that the king held his throne by divine right. James I. compared the royal dignity with the power of God, and said that no subject had a right 'to dispute what a king can do, or to say that the king cannot do this or that.'

Attitude of the Commons.—But the representatives of the nation in Parliament had never forgotten their rights. After Elizabeth's reign there was no foreign danger or civil dissension to justify a continuance of Tudor absolutism. The great middle class of England, moreover, had advanced in wealth and intelligence, and with their progress came the natural desire to assume that share of political privilege to which they were justly entitled. The farmers, manufacturers, and merchants, who paid most of the taxes, asserted their right to determine through their representatives in Parliament how those taxes should be collected.

James and the Parliament.—This and other claims of the Parliament were disdainfully denied by King James. Several times he summoned Parliament in order to get a grant of taxes. The Commons each time formally asserted their privileges, with the invariable result that their sessions were dissolved by the king.

Accession of Charles I.; the Petition of Right.—Charles I. continued the arbitrary rule of his father. Parliament violently opposed his policy, and continued to assert its privileges whenever the king felt obliged by need of funds to summon it. In

1628 Charles' third Parliament drew up the famous '*Petition of Right*,' a document which was based on the principles of the Great Charter. Before the king could get any money he had to confirm that it was illegal (1) to levy certain taxes without consent of Parliament, (2) to imprison citizens arbitrarily, (3) to quarter soldiers in private houses, (4) to hold trials without a jury.

Charles broke his promise to observe the *Petition of Right*, and managed to govern for eleven years without assembling Parliament at all. During this time

he raised his revenues by illegal taxes, and imprisoned, without proper trial, the members of the House of Commons who had opposed him.

Archbishop Laud and Puritan Emigration.—The minister of Charles I. for religious affairs was Archbishop *Laud*. He demanded the strictest observance of the state religion, and punished severely the dissenters who refused to obey his orders. At this time many thousand Puritans (extreme Protestants) left their homes and emigrated to America, rather than submit to *Laud's* tyranny. Most of them settled in those



CHARLES I.

colonies which are now known as the *New England States* of the Union.

Meeting of the Long Parliament (1640).—Following the advice of Laud, Charles I. tried to force the established religion also on his Scotch subjects, many of whom were ardent Protestants. When he met their protests with force, the Scottish nation rose in revolt, and sent an army into England. The rebellion at once placed Charles in a dilemma from which he could not escape. To repel the Scotch insurgents he needed an army, and to raise an army he had to apply to Parliament for funds. But if he called Parliament together, that body was sure to upset his system of personal government. The occupation of Northern England by the Scots at last obliged Charles to give way. In 1640 he called a Parliament, which has become famous in English history as the '*Long Parliament*.'

The Struggle between Charles I. and the Long Parliament.—The Parliament soon went further in its hostility to the king, than its own members expected at the outset. Laud and Strafford, the king's favourite ministers, were tried for treason against the state, and executed. The levying of illegal taxes was forbidden, and the king's arbitrary courts of justice were abolished. Furthermore, Charles had to sign a bill whereby the existing Parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent.

A good understanding between the king and the Commons might now have been restored, had not the king repeatedly shown that he had no intention to keep his word. In 1641 the Commons passed a

resolution called '*the Grand Remonstrance*,' in which they voiced their distrust of the king, and demanded that his ministers should be made responsible to Parliament. Charles rejected the demand. Shortly afterwards he went to the Parliament House with a force of five hundred soldiers, intending to arrest five leading members on the charge of treason, because they had aided the Scotch rebels. But the members had escaped beforehand. Civil war was now unavoidable.

The Civil War.—In 1643 the king gathered an army of his supporters and took the field against the Parliamentary forces. The '*Cavaliers*,' as the royalists were called, at first had the advantage over the '*Roundheads*.' The latter nickname was given to the Puritan soldiers, because many of them wore their hair cut short, while the fashionable gentlemen of the time always wore long hair. The fortunes of war changed when *Oliver Cromwell*, a colonel of cavalry, brought his '*Ironsides*' into action. They were enthusiastic Puritans, all ready to die in upholding their religion, and made into an invincible regiment by the discipline and the genius of their commander. The charge of the Ironsides routed the Cavaliers in the battle of Marston Moor, 1644. During the following months Cromwell reformed the whole Parliamentary army according to the model of his Ironsides. The result was a second decisive defeat of the king at *Naseby*, in 1645.

Next year the king fell into the hands of his opponents. By every kind of intrigue he tried to create party strife among the revolutionists, and he

did in fact succeed in provoking open war between the Scots and the party of the 'Independents,' which was led by Cromwell. When it became plain to the Independents that the king constantly deceived them, thereby prolonging the bloodshed, they decided to follow a wholly violent and illegal course. They controlled the army, and could therefore overawe all opposition. First they expelled from Parliament those members who sympathized either with the Scottish party or with the king. This measure is known as '*Pride's Purge*,' because an officer by the name of Pride was sent to the House of Commons to arrest the objectionable members.

Execution of King Charles I. (1649).—The reformed Parliament was entirely subservient to the wishes of the army. It constituted itself into a high court of justice for the trial of the king, and condemned him to death. A few days later he was publicly beheaded at London. All through the trial and until the moment of his death, he bore himself with the dignity befitting a king.

C THE COMMONWEALTH AND THE PROTECTORATE

The Commonwealth (1649-1653).—The Commons now abolished the monarchy and set up a kind of republic, called the 'Commonwealth.' The new government really was a tyranny of the Puritan minority, which had the army on its side, over the rest of the nation.

In Scotland and Ireland the royalist cause was strengthened by the horror of the people, when they

heard of the king's martyrdom. His son, Charles II., was proclaimed as king of Scotland. The new Commonwealth was thus threatened from two sides, while the English royalists were ready to join any forces which Charles II. might bring into England.

Cromwell's energy rose with the danger. He speedily crushed the Irish rebellion, and annihilated the Scotch army of Charles II. in the battle of *Worcester*. The young prince escaped to France, where he was hospitably received at the court of Louis XIV.

The military successes of the Commonwealth were all due to



CROMWELL.

the efficiency of the army and to the able leadership of Cromwell. The Parliament, on the other hand, was quite unable to cope with the task of government. Its members were lacking in patriotism, and open to bribery. In 1653 Cromwell personally charged the members with injustice and selfishness, and closed his angry address with the words, "It is not fit you should sit here any longer." A body of soldiers drove

the members out, and Cromwell locked the doors of the house. With the forcible dissolution of the Long Parliament the last constitutional authority was swept away.

Cromwell called a new Parliament, composed entirely of the most religious and upright Puritans. This assembly, generally called the '*Little Parliament*,'



CHARLES II.

intended to do its best, and did really carry through some minor reforms; but its members had not the practical ability required to direct the government. Rather than see a renewal of civil war and anarchy, they determined to give full political power to Cromwell, the one man who could maintain order.

The Protectorate (1653-1659).—Under the title of

'Lord Protector of the Commonwealth,' Oliver Cromwell exercised a sort of dictatorship over England. He did not seek power for himself, but accepted it and used it well when circumstances forced it on him. He convoked several parliaments, hoping to restore a representative form of government. They were all inefficient, however, and Cromwell had to continue his dictatorship. Under his firm administration the peace was kept at home, while he enforced the respect of foreign governments abroad.

Had he possessed a son approaching him in ability, he could have founded a new dynasty. The title of

king was actually offered to Cromwell a year before his death. His son, Richard Cromwell, succeeded him as Lord Protector in 1659. But Richard proved weak and inefficient. He abdicated after a few months' rule, leaving an open field for a disastrous quarrel between the army and the Parliament.

Restoration of Charles II.—Most Englishmen dreaded a renewal of civil strife, and were heartily glad when Charles II. issued a proclamation promising to pardon all revolutionists, if he were recalled to the throne. In May, 1660, the king landed at Dover, and was received with the greatest enthusiasm. The '*Restoration*,' as his return was called, showed that the people still favoured monarchy, provided that it did not assume the form of tyranny.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE HEIGHT AND THE DECLINE OF THE FRENCH MONARCHY

Louis XIII. and Richelieu—Louis XIII., the son of Henry IV., was a child of nine years when he came to the throne in 1610. At first his mother, Mary de Medici, acted as regent. In 1614 the young king was declared to be of age, but he never in all his life became energetic enough to be an independent ruler. The character of his reign depended wholly on the character of his advisers. Fortunately for the French monarchy, the king fell under the influence of a highly gifted statesman, the Cardinal *Richelieu*. From 1624 until 1642 this remarkable man was the virtual ruler of France. He devoted all his energies to the uplifting of the royal power. Towards this end he worked by two methods: First, all opposition to the throne within France was to be crushed; secondly, the foreign rivals of France were to be weakened.

Political Power of the Nobles broken.—While carrying out his task of making the monarchy supreme in France, Richelieu did away with the dangerous remnants of independence which many nobles still

inherited from feudal times. The most formidable opposition he met with from the Huguenots. They wished to break away from the royal government, and to establish a Protestant republic. Their principal stronghold was the city of *La Rochelle*, in Western France. Richelieu destroyed La Rochelle after an arduous siege, which he personally brought to a successful end. The Huguenots were allowed to continue the practice of their religion, but their revolutionary schemes were broken up.

Richelieu's Foreign Policy was equally successful. Though he did not live to enjoy the humbling of the House of Hapsburg in the treaty of Westphalia, yet the French gains were entirely the result of Richelieu's work. He raised France to the first position among the European states.

Administration of Mazarin—Richelieu's successor, Cardinal Mazarin, held the post of chief minister when Louis XIII. passed away. All through the minority of Louis XIV., who was a child of five on his accession, Mazarin guided the French government. He followed the lines laid down by Richelieu in every particular, and with similar success.

Personal Government of Louis XIV.—When Mazarin died, Louis XIV. decided to be his own prime minister. No state paper of the slightest importance was to take effect unless he had personally seen and signed it. He kept his resolution and centred in himself all powers of government, working with ability and great industry. In Louis XIV. the doctrine of the 'Divine Right of Kings' found its foremost representative. He regarded himself as

more than human, and demanded from his courtiers personal attentions and flatteries which amounted almost to worship. The whole nobility of France was drawn to the splendid court at *Versailles*, near



LOUIS XIV

Paris, to live there in idle splendour as the king's pensioners. The great palace and the surrounding gardens at Versailles still bear witness to the extravagance of the court. The cost of this one palace—

Louis had several others—is estimated at a hundred million gold dollars. This fabulous expenditure was designed as the outward symbol of royal dignity. Louis best summed up his estimate of himself and his power in the famous saying, '*I am the State.*'

Colbert.—During the first half of Louis' reign, the French monarchy attained the highest point of its inner prosperity and outward power. This was due not so much to the king himself, as to the devoted labour of several able ministers, among whom *Colbert* stands first. As a statesman Colbert was the equal of Cardinal Richelieu; but the former's name is less famous because he kept his merits quiet, giving all the credit for his successes to the king. As a merchant's son, Colbert had early acquired an insight into industry, commerce, and finance, fields in which he distinguished himself as a minister. By introducing a strict system of accounts, he increased the public revenues, while actually lessening the taxes. He encouraged industries at home, stimulated foreign trade, and expanded the French navy, until it stood first in Europe. Colonization was furthered in *Canada* and elsewhere; Louisiana was explored, and two great trading companies to the East and the West Indies were chartered. At Colbert's death, France possessed the greatest colonial empire in the world.

Colbert's ambition was never for himself, but for the king's glory, and still more for the welfare of the people. Therefore he was bitterly disappointed when his best work was undone by the king's foreign policy. Tremendous wars exhausted the revenues,

and forced Colbert to provide new means by ruinous taxation.

Louis XIV.'s Foreign Policy; His War with Holland.—Louis XIV.'s ambition drove him into four wars of conquest, which, by their waste of men and money, were ruinous for France. The second war was against Holland, in revenge for an alliance which that country had made with Sweden and England, and by which Louis had been prevented from conquering the Spanish Netherlands.

Before opening the campaign, Louis isolated the Dutch Republic by the payment of heavy bribes to the Swedish and English kings. Charles II., the restored Stuart ruler, disgraced himself in the eyes of Parliament and of the people by his understanding with Louis. The States-General alone were helpless before the French invading force. They were ready to buy peace with one-third of their land; but the French made such humiliating demands that the Dutch renewed the war with the courage of despair.

They found an able leader in *William of Orange*, a descendant of William the Silent. Like his great ancestor, this younger prince of Orange succeeded more by patience and persistency than by victories in the field. The Dutch again called in the ocean against their enemies by cutting the dykes and flooding large tracts of country. Spain and Germany sided with Holland against France, with the result that Louis largely lost the fruits of his earlier victories. By the *Treaty of Nimwegen* (1678) Holland secured very favourable terms, her territory remaining almost intact. Spain, however, had to give up some lands, which to-day still remain a part of Northern France.

Arrogance of Louis XIV.—During the years following the Dutch war, Louis XIV. was by far the most powerful sovereign in Europe. He behaved arro-

gantly towards the neighbouring states, especially towards Germany and Italy. When he had seized and fortified the big city of Strassburg in German Alsace, and otherwise insulted his weaker neighbours, the principal sovereigns joined in an alliance against him.

Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685).—The French Huguenots were no longer politically dangerous, but they disliked absolutism, and were thus regarded as natural enemies of the monarchy. Louis XIV. was a strict Catholic, and had a passion for uniformity in every department of administration. He resolved to do away with Protestantism, and ordered a systematic persecution of all Huguenots who refused to become Catholics. In the so-called '*Dragonades*' rough soldiers (dragoons) were quartered in the Huguenot families, whose lives they made miserable. As a final measure the Edict of Nantes, which had afforded religious liberty to the Protestants, was revoked. No Protestant could thereafter exercise his religion in France. More than 200,000 of the best citizens left their homes with their families, rather than submit to such indignities. France thereby lost the most intelligent and industrious part of her population. The Protestant states and the English colonies in America received the fugitives with open arms. The Huguenot emigrants formed a most valuable part of the population of the future United States.

The revocation of the Edict of Nantes was a bigoted, unstatesman-like measure. It was a political blunder so harmful to France, that one can question whether Louis XIV.

deserves the epithet 'the Great' bestowed on him by admiring contemporaries. All Protestant states became his enemies, and joined into a league with the Catholic sovereigns of Spain and Germany, who wanted to get revenge for his robberies of land.

The War of the Palatinate (1689-1697).—War soon broke out between France and the 'Grand Alliance' of European states, because Louis XIV. wished to seize the Palatinate, a fine German principality adjoining Alsace. The French commander tried to break resistance by turning the country into a desert. 100,000 innocent people were made homeless by this barbarity. When Louis finally made peace, by the Treaty of *Ryswick*, he had to give up most of the lands he had seized since the peace of *Nimwegen*. He agreed to these advantageous terms, because he wished to save his strength for the more important struggle that was sure to arise on account of the Spanish succession.

The Spanish Succession—King Charles II. of Spain had no child. All European governments were interested to see who should succeed to the Spanish throne. They all adhered to a principle of international politics, which has largely shaped European history during the last centuries, and which is usually summed up in the phrase, '*The Balance of Power*.' It implied that no one state should become so powerful as to menace the safety of the other states.

There were two candidates for the Spanish succession: the one, Philip of Anjou, was the second grandson of Louis XIV.; the other, Archduke Charles of the Hapsburg line, was the son of the Emperor Leopold of Germany. The Spanish sovereignty at this time included the Spanish Netherlands and a considerable part of Italy. If Philip were to inherit these dominions, the French power would dominate

Europe. When Charles II. finally made a will naming Philip of Anjou as his heir, the European states at once joined to form a grand alliance against France.

The War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714).—The allies had two great generals in their service, the English Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy. These two

won a succession of victories, all notable in military history, of which the battle of *Blenheim* (1704) is most famous. Louis at last was ready to make peace on terms most favourable to the allies. They expected to humble him still lower and continued the war. But the whole aspect of affairs changed by



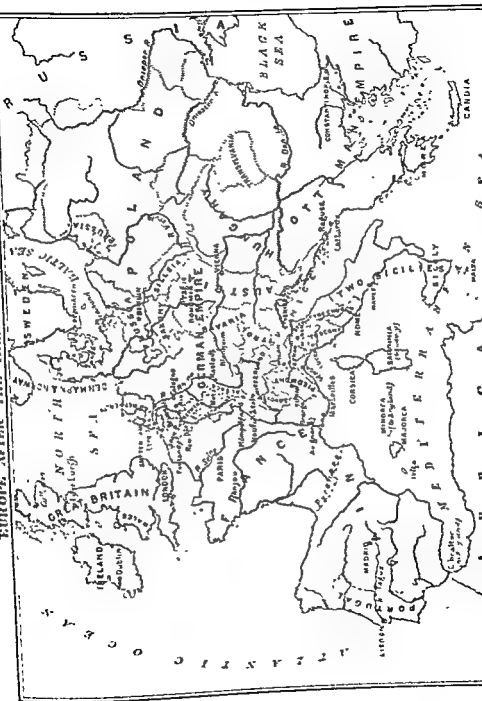
MARLBOROUGH

the deaths of the emperor Leopold and of his older son. The Austrian claimant, Charles of Hapsburg, thereby became emperor of Germany. Had he now succeeded to the Spanish throne, he would have revived the great Hapsburg empire of Charles V., and his power would have overshadowed the rest of Europe. England had no desire to build up a Hapsburg empire, and made peace with France. By the *Treaty of Utrecht* (1713) Philip of Anjou

was recognized as king of Spain, on condition that the kingdom should never be united with France. Austria gained the Spanish Netherlands, Sicily, and parts of Italy. The duchy of Savoy in North-western Italy was strengthened by the island of Sardinia. England profited most by the war. She got Gibraltar from Spain, while France ceded Nova Scotia, and recognized England's rights in Newfoundland and the Hudson Bay Territory.

Influence of French Culture on Europe.—Louis XIV. failed in his schemes of European conquest, and ruined his own country by the terrible drain of men and money. When he died France had already begun to sink from the undisputed pre-eminence which she held during the early part of his reign. But in other ways the French of the eighteenth century attained to a domination over Europe, which lasted well into the nineteenth century. They were considered as masters and models in literature, and in all matters pertaining to dress, manners, and all the refinements of life. French became the polite language of the educated people throughout Europe. The rulers of the German states imitated the court of the 'Grand Monarch' at Versailles, built French palaces, practised French politeness, and indulged in French vices. Even at the present day French is still the leading language spoken at the courts and in the diplomatic circles of Europe. Among the writers who made the reign of Louis XIV. the classical period of French literature three dramatists are pre-eminent. They are Corneille, Racine, and Molière.

EUROPE AFTER THE TREATY OF UTRECHT.



The Mississippi Bubble—Louis XV. was the great-grandson of Louis XIV. He came to the throne as a boy of five. During the regency of the Duke of Orleans the financial administration fell into the hands of a Scotchman named *John Law*. He established a national bank, and offered to extinguish the huge national debt left by Louis XIV. (about 3,000,000,000 francs). For this purpose he issued a paper currency, which had no real value, because the bank could not pay in good money even a small fraction of the notes issued. To make the bank notes popular Law founded a company for the exploiting of the American colonies. Shares in the 'Mississippi Company' were sold to investors more cheaply for bank notes than for coin. By various tricks Law made the people believe that the Mississippi Company was earning large profits. Every one was anxious to buy shares, with the result that their value became very high. The government felt rich, and the whole nation fell into a fever of money making. When the inevitable crash came, and the fraud was detected, the shares and the paper money alike became worthless. Thousands of people were impoverished, and the government was more deeply in debt than before. The whole transaction was called the '*Mississippi Bubble*,' because, like an inflated soap bubble, it looked glittering and perfect until it burst into nothingness.

Decline of France under Louis XV.—Louis XV. was a lazy, pleasure-loving king. He fell under the control of mistresses, among whom *Madame de Pompadour* was most notorious. She concluded foreign alliances, made and unmade ministers and generals, and threw the whole administration into a hopeless muddle of favouritism and corruption. In the Seven Years' War France sided with her old rival Austria against Prussia (see the following chapter). The issue of the war was most unfortunate for France. The

defeats inflicted on her armies by Frederick the Great put an end to her prestige in Europe. More serious still was the loss of Canada, many West India Islands, and most of India, to England. French sea power was destroyed for a time. England stepped into the heritage of Spain, Portugal, and France as the ruler of a colonial world empire.

Louis XV. was unmoved by these national disasters. He and his court foresaw that their course would ultimately lead to ruin. They did not care what would happen to their successors, so long as they could enjoy themselves. 'After us the deluge,' said Madame de Pompadour. And the deluge really did come under the following reign. King, queen, and nobles were then all swept to the same ruin by the terrible French revolution.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE RISE OF PRUSSIA

Early History of Prussia.—The History of Prussia is almost the same as the history of the *Hohenzollern* family. The Hohenzollern were powerful lords in the tenth century. During the fifteenth century a Hohenzollern became elector of Brandenburg, the country in which the capital city Berlin is now situated.

Prussia was then a country to the north-east of Brandenburg, inhabited by Slavic people. After the Crusades it had been conquered by the Teutonic Knights, who forced the natives to accept Christianity. In the sixteenth century the knights elected a prince of Brandenburg as their commander, thus preparing the union of the two countries.

During and after the 'Thirty Years' War the double ruler of Brandenburg and Prussia was in a dangerous position. His lands were contiguous to powerful states, whose sovereigns were always ready and eager to prey on their weaker neighbours. Sweden controlled the Baltic, and had a foothold in Northern Germany. The king of Poland was the feudal suzerain of the Prussian Duke. Poland was then

much stronger than Brandenburg, and the Polish king would gladly have converted his nominal suzerainty over Prussia into actual sovereignty. A succession of able princes made out of such weak and exposed territories the closely-knit monarchy of modern Prussia, the leading military state in Europe.

From the Electorate to the Kingship.—*Frederick William*, called the *Great Elector* (1640-1688), gained some territory by the Peace of Westphalia. He adroitly used a war between Sweden and Poland to benefit himself at the expense of the belligerent powers. He encouraged French Huguenots, who had fled from their homes, to settle in his country. Their skill was welcome for his aim of encouraging industry and trade. He also began to abolish such feudal privileges of the nobles as interfered with the efficiency of the central government.

The chief aim of the Great Elector's successor, Frederick III., was to get the royal title. This dignity lay in the gift of the German emperor. He was little likely to raise up a rival for Austria by bestowing the name of king on the ruler of Brandenburg. Frederick succeeded, however, in placing the emperor under an obligation by helping him in the War of the Spanish Succession. With the imperial consent thus secured, Frederick was crowned king of Prussia in 1701. As king he styled himself Frederick I.

Frederick William I.—This ruler, the second king of Prussia, has often been ridiculed for his oddities. His ruling passion was economy. Compared with the extravagance of Louis XIV. it looked like stinginess.

With a hatred of laziness he joined a fiery temper. He used to walk about the streets of Berlin with a cane, and if he met any idler, whether man or woman, he sent that person to work with a sound beating.

The peculiarities of Frederick William were only exaggerations of his fine qualities as a ruler. By his economies he could maintain a model army of 70,000 men, and store up a large reserve in his treasury. He encouraged industry and frugality among his subjects, and so increased the general wealth of the country. His government was absolute, but it was a truly paternal absolutism.

Frederick the Great (1740-1786).—Frederick William's son, so famous in history as Frederick the Great, had a gentler disposition and more varied talents than his father. The difference in character, combined with an obstinacy of purpose which both had in common, led to a total estrangement between father and son. As a young man, Frederick even tried to escape from his father's tyranny by flight. The escape was prevented, and Frederick's companion and friend was executed in punishment for the offence. Frederick witnessed the execution from his prison window. For a while he feared lest the enraged king might decree death for him also. In his riper years the crown prince got a better understanding of his father's merits. He took an active share in the administration, and completed his military education by serving through a campaign under Prince Eugene of Savoy. Frederick William's death found his successor prepared to carry on the government with undiminished efficiency.

War of the Austrian Succession.—Frederick wished to employ the army trained by his father for enlarging the Prussian boundaries. An opportunity came soon after his accession, when the emperor Charles VI. died without leaving a son. By an agreement called the Pragmatic Sanction the European sovereigns



FREDERICK THE GREAT.

recognized Charles' daughter *Maria Theresa* as rightful queen over the Hapsburg dominions.

In disregard of the Pragmatic Sanction Frederick threw an army into Silesia, a rich Austrian province adjoining Brandenburg (1740). The Austrian forces were defeated. The Prussian robbery roused the greed of other powers. Spain, France, Bavaria, Savoy, and Saxony joined in the 'War of the

Austrian Succession,' all hoping to profit by the spoliation of the defenceless queen. Frederick withdrew from the war when Maria Theresa ceded Silesia to him (1742). England and Holland ranged themselves on the Austrian side, and helped the queen to gain a decisive advantage. By the Austrian successes Frederick was obliged to enter the field again in defence of his newly won province. In the Second Silesian War he again proved his military superiority, and forced Maria Theresa to leave him master of Silesia (1745). Meanwhile the general European conflict extended to the colonies, where that struggle between the French and English began, which was to end with the loss to France of her colonial possessions. But that result came later. The War of the Austrian Succession was closed by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), which recognized Maria Theresa as Austrian Queen, and her husband Francis I. as German Emperor. No power save Prussia drew any advantage from the eight years' war.

Frederick as an Administrator.—As an administrator in time of peace, Frederick showed an ability and industry which of itself placed him foremost among the rulers of the eighteenth century. He is so often mentioned as one of the world's greatest generals, that his purely peaceful labours, which extended over thirty-five years in a reign of forty-six years, are easily overlooked. Like his father, he supervised personally all the details of government, working with superhuman energy. He regarded his royal calling as a sacred duty, and made the public welfare

the aim of all his actions. He called himself '*the first servant of the State*.' At the close of the Seven Years' War his treasury still showed a surplus of thirty million dollars. (Compare the debt left by Louis XIV.) These funds were used for the rebuilding at the government's expense of ruined villages and for helping new settlers in devastated districts. The draining of marshes, the building of canals, the improvement of agriculture, trade, and industry, all were furthered by the king.

The Seven Years' War (1756-1763).—Maria Theresa brought about an alliance between Austria, France, Russia, and Saxony, for the purpose of crushing the rising power of Prussia. Except Saxony, all of the allies singly had more territory and resources than the Prussian king. With most of Europe leagued against him, Frederick seemed doomed at the outset. England helped him for a while; otherwise he stood alone. During the war Frederick astonished all Europe by his military genius. Of the battle of *Lenthen* (1757) Napoleon Bonaparte said, "It alone would have sufficed to make Frederick immortal." The king's fortitude in time of danger was equally admirable. Twice his case seemed hopeless, but he still held his enemies at bay. At the moment of supreme danger a new emperor came to the Russian throne, and withdrew at once from the contest, out of admiration for the heroic king. In the following year financial exhaustion forced the Austrian court to make peace. By the treaty of Hubertusburg Silesia remained with Prussia. Compared with the cost of the war—850,000 men perished

in it—its results were quite negative, and most of the participants gained nothing to balance their losses. Prussia established her position as the equal of Austria in Germany, and as the first military power in Europe.

The Anglo-French Phase of the Seven Years' War.—Before the outbreak of the Seven Years' War in Europe the French and English governments had already renewed their struggle for supremacy in North America. The French planned to shut the



WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.

English settlers out from the Mississippi valley and the lands to the west by building a chain of forts from the lower Mississippi to Canada. In India also French and English trading interests came into conflict.

Under the vigorous government of George II.'s prime minister, *William Pitt*, afterwards Earl of

Chatham, Canada and the West India Islands were taken from the French. Thereafter the supremacy of the English race in America was undisputed. In India the French had several trading stations, of which *Pondicherry* was the biggest. The English East India Company had established its trading stations at Madras, near Pondicherry, at Bombay, and at Calcutta. The French were about to make further conquests under the able guidance of governor *Dupleix*, when their home government ruined the enterprise by misman-

agement. The East India Company found a leader of genius in *Robert Clive*. He imitated and improved the methods of Dupleix, and won for his employers the practical monopoly of the Indian trade. For the world's history since then the English gains in America and India have proved far more significant than the terrible seven years' struggle in Europe.

Robert Clive first distinguished himself by capturing *Arcot*, the capital of the Carnatic. The native ruler of this state was allied with the French, and Clive's success, followed by other victories caused the downfall of Dupleix.



ROBERT CLIVE.

In 1756 Siraj-ud-Daula, the Nawab of Bengal, determined to drive the English out of his dominions. Having been defeated by a small force of English under Clive, he allied himself with the French, and prepared for a decisive battle. Clive marched inland from Calcutta with a force of three thousand, of whom one third were Europeans. The nawab had fifty thousand men, and five times as many cannon as the English. But Siraj-ud-Daula was a timid despot, while Clive was, as Pitt called him, 'a heaven-born general.' The nawab's army was dispersed in the famous battle of *Plassey*. By placing a nawab of his own choice upon the throne, Clive made the East India Company actual rulers of Bengal (1757).

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE RISE OF MODERN RUSSIA

The Conquest of Siberia.—In 1613 the new dynasty of the *Romanoffs* ascended the Russian throne. The early rulers of this dynasty did little worthy of note. They were not strong enough to assert themselves against their Western neighbours, Turkey, Poland, and Sweden. In the East, however, no vigorous state intervened to stop the expansion of Russian authority across Asia. Small bands of Cossack explorers and adventurers conquered all of Asia north of the Chinese empire and up to Bering Strait. In 1643 an exploring expedition descended the Amur river to the sea of Ochotsk. The important trading town of Irkutsk near lake Baikal became Russian in 1652. The Russians were twice repulsed from the Amur by the energetic Manchu government of China. In 1689 the two empires made the treaty of Nerchinsk, which left the whole Amur region in Chinese hands. For nearly two hundred years this treaty stopped any further expansion of Russia in the Far East.

Peter the Great (1689-1725).—Russia at this time was a purely Asiatic power. Though the physical boundary of Europe is placed along the Ural

mountains, political and social Europe stopped at the Russian frontiers. The Muscovites were Eastern rather than Western in dress, manners, and institutions. Since Ivan the Terrible, Western reforms had been attempted on a small scale by several rulers. The first one to lift Russia to a political equality with the European powers was *Peter the Great*.



PETER THE GREAT.

Peter assumed the government as a youth of eventeen. Through foreign merchants settled in Moscow he had acquired some Western learning and had developed a keen interest in ship-building. He grew convinced that the proper development of Russia required many reforms according to Western models, and above all a command of the sea. With remarkable energy and persistently Peter followed this double aim throughout his reign.

Peter's Self-Education.—In 1696 Peter took the fortified harbour of Azof at the head of the Black Sea from the Turks. The experience of the two expeditions needed for this conquest convinced him that his people had first of all to learn how to build and sail ships. He determined to begin the national education with himself. He travelled to Holland and worked there in disguise as a ship's carpenter. In the docks of the East India Company at Amsterdam he assisted in the building of a frigate, doing his share of work like any ordinary labourer. Meanwhile he also inspected factories, schools, and hospitals, attended lectures on medicine; in short, absorbed everything that seemed to him worthy of imitation in his own realm. He continued his studies in England, and planned to travel to Italy, but was recalled by a revolt of the imperial guards. Before returning home he engaged foreign artisans, artists, and military officers.

Western Reforms.—Peter's first measure in Moscow was the strict punishment of the rebellious guards or *Strelitzes*. They were broken up and replaced by an army after the European pattern.

The Russians all wore long beards. To cut the beard was considered a sacrilege, almost like mutilating the body. The national costume was a long, loose robe, with long sleeves coming down over the hands. Peter argued that a man with a trailing gown and sleeved hands could not be an efficient worker. The beard he regarded as the symbol of conservatism. By imperial decree the Russians were now commanded to shave and to cut off their long skirts and

sleeves. Barbers and tailors were stationed at the gates of Moscow, ready to 'civilize' all passers-by who had not already obeyed the imperial order. Peter himself trimmed off the beards and sleeves of some nobles who obstinately clung to the old fashion.

Only a few more of Peter's reforms can here be mentioned. He stopped, so far as possible, the oriental seclusion of the women. He built roads and canals, opened mines, struck a new coinage, and started a postal service. While retaining and even strengthening autocracy in the central government, he established a certain measure of self-government by the people in their local affairs.

War with Sweden.—At Peter's accession, Sweden was the leading power in Northern Europe. She controlled the Baltic, and shut Russia off from naval communication with the West. Only from Archangel on the White Sea a diminutive trade could be carried on during the summer months around the North Cape.

In 1697 *Charles XII.* came to the Swedish throne. As he was young and inexperienced, the states adjoining the Baltic took the opportunity to put an end to the Swedish supremacy over that sea. Peter the Great joined in an alliance with the kings of Poland and Denmark against Charles XII.

Campaigns of Charles XII.—The young Swedish king had a genius for warfare which quickly broke up the plans of the allies. He defeated the Danes, marched northward against Russia, and routed the superior forces of Peter at *Narva* (1700). Peter comforted his officers by remarking: "The Swedes

will have the advantage of us for some time, but they will teach us at last how to beat them." Charles led his small army into Poland, defeated the king, and placed one of his allies on the Polish throne. All Europe watched his victories with astonishment and admiration.

Foundation of St. Petersburg; Defeat of Charles XII.—Meanwhile Peter occupied the Swedish territory on the Gulf of Finland. In the marshes at the mouth of the river Neva he built his new capital of St. Petersburg, his 'window to the West.' The difficulties of laying out the city were almost insurmountable, but Peter succeeded by extraordinary measures. The whole land had first to be filled up, and the buildings had to be raised on wooden piles driven into the swamp.

In 1708 Charles XII. led his army into Russia. Believing himself to be invincible, he rashly marched into the interior, far away from his base. Peter, who had improved his army since the defeat at Narva, scattered the Swedish forces at *Pultowa* (1709). Sweden never recovered from the blow. The adventurous Swedish king spent some years in Turkey, where he brought about a campaign against Peter, which resulted in the temporary loss of Azof. After his death during a war with Norway, his recklessness had left nothing but losses for his country. By the peace of *Nystadt* (1721) Russia gained the eastern shore of the Baltic. From now on maritime trade and free communication with Western Europe were secured for Russia. She was now a European as well as an Asiatic power.

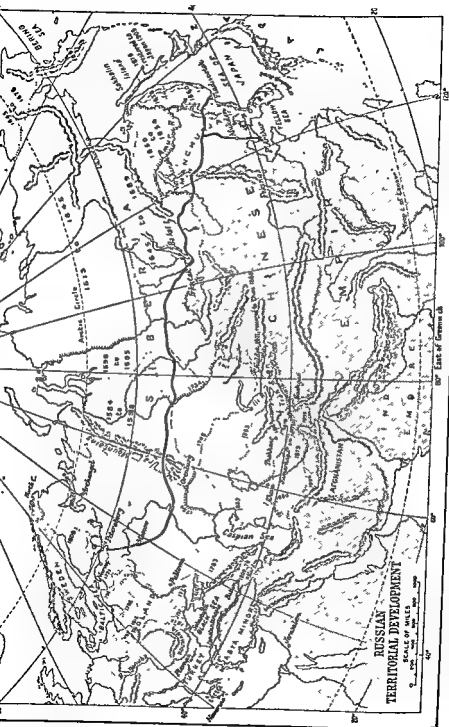
Cruelty of Peter the Great.—Peter had an iron will and a terrible temper. With his own hand he executed some of the revolted Strelitzes. The obstinate members of the conservative party he treated with merciless severity. Torture and wholesale deportation to Siberia impressed his will on all who obstructed his reforms. When his own son Alexis joined the opposition, he had him tortured to death. In a letter sent to Alexis before his trial the emperor had written: "Since I do not spare my own life for the good of my country and the prosperity of my people, why should I spare yours?"

Though Peter's cruelty was a fault in his character, its ultimate effect was wholesome for Russia. It was only by sheer force that the unwilling Russians could be dragged towards a higher and freer civilization.

Catherine II. (1763-1796).—Most of Peter's successors continued his policy. The ablest ruler after him was Catherine II., who was for Russia what Queen Elizabeth was for England. An English historian places her even above Elizabeth, calling her 'the greatest woman, probably, who ever sat on a throne.' While carrying on internal reforms along the lines laid down by Peter the Great, she vastly increased her territories by successful wars and diplomacy. After the death of Frederick the Great she alone dominated international politics in Europe.

Territorial Expansion; Partition of Poland.—Catherine II., urged by her favourite minister Potemkin, waged successful wars of conquest against Turkey. She acquired most of the northern coast of the Black Sea, and pushed the Russian frontiers far into the Caucasus.

The kingdom of *Poland* suffered from constant disorder arising out of the arrogance of the feudal



nobility. The Polish king could not assert his authority, and the nobles could not agree on united action. The consequent weakness of the country was so tempting to the neighbouring states, that they finally agreed to divide it up among themselves. The first partition grew out of a secret treaty agreed on between Catherine II., Frederick the Great, and Maria Theresa.

The Polish patriots under the lead of the heroic *Kosciusko* made desperate attempts to recover their land and their liberty. Their uprisings were crushed, and Poland was blotted from the map by the second and third partitions. Since then the Poles have made many unsuccessful attempts to regain their nationality from their Russian, Prussian, and Austrian masters.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE DECLINE OF TURKEY

Causes of the Decline of Turkey.—The decline of the Ottoman Turks in the last three centuries differs in one respect from the decline of other great races. The downfall of a nation is almost always due to a general deterioration and loss of energy, not in the ruling classes alone, but in all grades of society. In the case of Turkey, however, this is not so. The Turkish peasant of to-day is probably as good a man as his ancestor who fought under Suleiman the Great. The nation as a whole is not to blame for its decline. The fault lies in the ruling classes.

The causes of Turkish decline may be summarized as follows: (1) The deterioration of the House of Othman, accentuated by the custom of keeping princes of the blood in seclusion, instead of giving them responsible commands. (2) The corruption of official life by bribery and intrigue. (3) The lack of progress in all modern sciences, and especially in the art of war. (4) The Rise of Russia.

First Stage of Decline.—Military insubordination and a frequently empty treasury were the first visible signs of decline. Foreign countries, however, were slow to

take advantage of the internal disorder of the Empire, and it was long before any serious loss of territory resulted. In 1596 the Austrians were defeated with great loss at Orestes, but by the Peace of Sitvatorok in 1606 Transylvania became practically independent, and the annual tribute which Austria had paid to the Porte was abolished. For more than half a century there was peace between the two nations, and during this time Turkey had little to fear from without. The Thirty Years' War occupied the attention of Western Europe, and neither Russia nor Persia was strong enough to do her any serious damage. The failure of Turkey to turn such an opportunity to account is a sure proof of her internal weakness. At a time when she might have been extending her power, she was rent by revolutions and military revolts which threatened her with rapid destruction. When things were at their worst, Morad IV. (1623-1640) became Sultan, and to him the greatest credit is due for restoring order and thus saving the Empire from anarchy. Though only 28 when he died, he did much to bring back the glory of his house by his iron rule and personal bravery. By ruthless severity and wholesale executions the troops were reduced to abject submission. The exploits of his warlike ancestors were recalled, when in 1638 the young Sultan recaptured Baghdad which had been taken by the Persians, and the citizens of Constantinople once more welcomed their ruler as a conqueror on his return to the capital. Coming at such a time, the rule of a strong, though cruel, tyrant, a true descendant of Salim I., was of the greatest value to the Ottoman Empire. Unfortunately.

his successor, Ibrahim (1640-1648), was the most corrupt and degraded of all the Sultans, with the result that the former deplorable conditions returned.

Revival of Prosperity under Ahmad Kiuprili.—The second half of the seventeenth century must always be associated in Ottoman history with the name of Kiuprili. No less than five of this family held the office of Grand Vizier, and of these the first four rank among the greatest statesmen that their race has produced. Thanks to their able administration there was an interval in the period of decline, many of the dangers that menaced the Empire were averted, and the Turks were granted a new lease of prosperity.

The founder of this dynasty of viziers was Mohammad Kiuprili, who ruled the Empire from 1656 to 1661 during the minority of Mohammad IV. Like Morad IV. he stopped disorder by putting to death everybody on whom there was the slightest suspicion of disloyalty. He was succeeded by his son Ahmad Kiuprili, the most famous member of this famous house. For fifteen years this great statesman directed the affairs of the Empire, and showed himself to be a civil and financial administrator of the very highest order. Though he was not lacking in his father's sternness, when the occasion required it, Ahmad Kiuprili adopted a policy of fairness and moderation, which did wonders in restoring confidence and good government throughout the Ottoman dominions.

It was in warfare, however, that Ahmad Kiuprili was obliged to spend most of his time. He was not a military genius, but though he suffered several severe reverses, he led his armies with distinction.

Soon after his accession to power the long peace with Austria came to an end. At the head of the Turkish army the Grand Vizier entered Hungary, where he promptly gained several minor successes. But unfortunately for him the Austrians had in the Italian Count Montecuculi a commander of consummate skill, and, in addition to this advantage, they were now armed with more modern weapons than the Turks. At the battle of St. Gothard (1664) Montecuculi inflicted a severe defeat on the invaders, and thus gained the distinction of being the first Christian general to win a pitched battle against the full force of the Ottoman army. The result of this battle was a truce for twenty years.

In the island of Crete the Grand Vizier re-established his military fame by capturing the city of Candia from the Venetians, the inveterate foes of the Ottoman Empire. For twenty years the Turks had been besieging the city, but Kiuprili, after spending three years on the island, at last forced the Venetians to capitulate. Peace was made and Crete was ceded to the Sultan (1669).

The third military enterprise of Ahmad Kiuprili was against Poland and Russia. The Cossacks of the Ukraine asked the Sultan for help against Polish oppression, and in 1672 Kiuprili, in answer to this appeal, captured Kaminiac in Podolia, and forced the King of Poland not only to hand over Podolia and the Ukraine to the Turks, but also to pay tribute. The Polish nobles, however, refused to accept these terms, and with an army of Poles and Russians their leader Sobieski defeated the Turks at Khoczim (1673) and

Lemberg (1675). But it was impossible for Poland to prolong the war against the superior resources of the Porte. In 1676, after the defeat of Sobieski at Zurawna, a peace was concluded by which the Sultan retained Podolia and the Ukraine.

The Second Siege of Vienna (1683).—The greatness of Ahmad Kiuprili was emphasized by the disasters that befell the Empire under his successor, Kara Mostafa, a man whose personal ambition was only equalled by his incompetence. The full authority which Mohammad IV. had given to Kiuprili was now wielded by a vizier who did even more to ruin the Empire than his great predecessor had done to restore it. By one colossal failure, the failure of his expedition against Vienna, Kara Mostafa obliterated the results of Kiuprili's financial and military administration.

The war which was begun between Turkey and Austria in 1682 lasted for seventeen years, and was perhaps the most disastrous that the House of Othman ever undertook. Yet at its commencement it was Austria, and not Turkey, that was threatened with destruction. The force that Kara Mostafa led against Vienna probably amounted to half a million men, and with such overwhelming strength even an inferior general should have had no difficulty in taking the city. Yet Kara Mostafa not only failed, but suffered a defeat, from which his country has never wholly recovered. Having reached the Austrian capital without encountering any serious resistance, he soon had the garrison at his mercy; but instead of taking the city by storm, as he might have done, he preferred to wait for its surrender, in order that he himself and not

his soldiers should be enriched by its spoil. In the meantime Sobieski, now the King of Poland, was hurrying to the rescue with an army of 70,000; but the Grand Vizier, thinking such a force beneath his notice, with unpardonable negligence did nothing whatever to prevent his advance. When at last he did realize his danger, it was too late. Sobieski was upon him. The Ottoman army, hopelessly mismanaged, was utterly routed, and the garrison issuing from the city completed the destruction that the victorious Poles had begun.

Further Disasters; Treaty of Carlowitz (1699).—The great calamity at Vienna was speedily followed by other disasters, for the Christians, at last realizing the weakness of the Ottoman Empire, now took the offensive. The Austrians reconquered Hungary, and the Venetians seized many important places in Greece. Another crushing defeat by the Austrians at Mohacz (1687), the scene of Suleiman the Magnificent's brilliant victory, led to the deposition of Mohammad IV. by his own soldiers. Under his successor, Sulciman II., Kiuprili-Zadé-Mostafa became Grand Vizier, and showed much of his brother Ahmad's genius for administration. He recovered Belgrade, but unfortunately for his country he was killed in the battle of Salankeman (1691) after holding office for less than two years.

The Sultan Mostafa II. (1695-1703) strove hard to repair the fortunes of his race. Taking the great Suleiman as his model, he insisted on leading his army in person. But the Austrians were now under the command of Prince Eugene of Savoy, one of

the greatest generals of the age, and the efforts of the young Sultan ended in the complete defeat of his army at Zenta (1697).

Besides the Austrians, the Venetians in Greece and Dalmatia, and the Russians in the neighbourhood of Azof, were enriching themselves at the expense of the Turks. Hosayn Kiuprili, the fourth member of that illustrious family to be Grand Vizier, saw that peace alone could save the Empire. England and Holland also advised the Sultan to end the war if any reasonable terms could be obtained, and after much negotiation the treaty of Carlowitz was signed in 1699. Austria gained Transylvania and the greater part of Hungary; Poland recovered Kaminiac and Podolia; Venice kept what she had taken in Dalmatia and the Morea; and Russia retained Azof.

Period of Comparative Success.—From the Treaty of Carlowitz down to our own time the great enemy of Turkey has been Russia. Before the reign of Peter the Great, the Muscovites, though dangerous in conjunction with others, had never been strong enough to stand alone against the Ottomans with any hope of success; but the wonderful reforms of the great Czar led to a complete reversal of the situation, and since his time the expansion of Russia has been effected largely at the expense of Turkey.

In Peter's own time, however, the Turks gained a notable success. After his defeat at Pultowa (1709) Charles XII. of Sweden took refuge in Turkey, and when the soldiers of the Czar violated the Sultan's territory to attack the Swedes, Charles and the Khan of the Crimea, who was also menaced by the Russians,

persuaded the Sublime Porte to declare war. In the campaign that followed Peter was misled by false information as to the whereabouts of the Turkish army, with the result that he was surrounded on the banks of the Pruth, and after two days' fighting found it impossible to force his way through the enemy's lines. He was thus completely at the mercy of the Grand Vizier, Mohammad Baltadji, and had the latter taken this golden chance he could have dealt such a crushing blow to the power of Russia, then only in its infancy, that the subsequent history of Turkey, Russia, and Sweden would in all probability have taken a very different course. As it was, the Czarina Catherine, who was with her husband, saved her country. At her instigation a demand for peace was accompanied by a gift to the Grand Vizier of all her own jewels, together with the other valuables of the Russian camp. Baltadji accepted the bribe, and the Treaty of the Pruth (1711) was signed, which, though humiliating to the Czar, only contained one real gain to the Sultan, namely, the restoration of Azof.

The next war of importance was against Austria and Venice. Again Prince Eugene carried all before him. His victory at Peterwaradin (1716) and his capture of Belgrade (1717) assured Austria of substantial gains. But the Republic of Venice was now in a state of rapid decline, and the successes of the Grand Vizier Damad Ali in the Morea did much to neutralize these reverses. By the Peace of Passarowitz (1718) Turkey ceded to Austria her last possessions in Hungary with Belgrade and other cities, and also parts of Wallachia and Servia; while from Venice she gained the Morea.

Before this period of comparative success comes to an end there is a third war to be recorded which the Turks concluded with a creditable treaty. This is the war against Austria and Russia which was begun by the latter power in 1736, chiefly as the result of Turkish remonstrance against Russian interference in Poland. In this war the Russians were everywhere successful. They devastated the Crimea and captured Azof and Oczakow. Their general, Marshall Munnich, a man of boundless ambition, was the originator of the "Oriental Project," which has caused so much disaster to Turkey and such endless trouble to the rest of Europe. Munnich held that the Russian sovereign was the natural head of the Christian subjects of the Sultan, and proposed to revive the Byzantine Empire by conquering Constantinople, the possession of which would convert Russia into a Mediterranean power. With this end in view he invaded Moldavia, and took Khoczim and Jassy. But his victorious march was cut short by news that his Austrian allies had failed utterly and were making an ignominious peace with the Turks. Confident of success in the memory of their former victories under the great Eugene, the authorities at Vienna had entrusted ill-prepared armies to incompetent generals. A great defeat at Krotzka showed them their mistake, and made it impossible for Munnich to continue his advance on Constantinople. The Austrian leaders fell back on Belgrade, where the famous treaty of that name was signed (1739). Belgrade and all the places in Bosnia, Servia, and Wallachia that the Emperor had gained by the Peace of Passarowitz were restored to the Sultan. Russia was obliged to

relinquish her conquests, the city of Azof was to be demolished, and no Russian fleet was to be kept on the Black Sea. This was the last advantageous treaty that the Sublime Porte has concluded with European powers.

The Treaty of Kainardji (1774).—For nearly thirty years after the Treaty of Belgrade there was peace between Turkey and Russia, but the ambition of Catherine II., who became sole ruler of Russia in 1763, made the renewal of the struggle inevitable. The Czarina was anxious for war, in order that she might carry out the "Oriental Project," which had become the chief aim of Russian foreign policy. She and Frederick the Great had begun their infamous schemes for the partition of Poland, and again the Porte protested on behalf of that unhappy country. Of the other powers France alone seems to have felt any misgiving at the unscrupulous behaviour of Russia to weaker states, and she alone gave any help or encouragement to the Sultan in his just cause against the Czarina. In 1768 Russian troops pursued some Polish fugitives across the Turkish frontier and burnt the town of Balta, which belonged to the Sultan's vassal, the Khan of the Crimea. The Turks declared war, and with right on their side, but deserted by fortune, entered on the most disastrous period of their history.

The Czarina attacked on the grand scale. Her armies extended from Trans-Caucasia to Moldavia, a fleet was despatched from the Baltic to the Archipelago, and the Christian subjects of the Sultan were encouraged to rise against their Mohammadan master.

The Russians were again victorious. The Turkish fleet was destroyed in the harbour of Tchesmé (1770), and had it not been for the gallant efforts of Hasan of Algiers, the Capitan Pasha, Constantinople would have been exposed to a sea attack. The ablest land opponent of the Czarina, Krim Ghirai, Khan of the Crimea, died early in the war, and left no successor capable of defending his territory. Bessarabia, the Crimea, Moldavia, and Wallachia were overrun by the enemy. The Turkish commanders were completely outclassed by the Russian generals, Romanoff and Suwarrow, though the courageous defence of Silistria by Othman Pasha was worthy of the best traditions of his race. At last, in 1774, when the Russians were on the point of crossing the Balkan, the Turks asked for peace, and the Czarina, who was beset with troubles at home, and needed troops both there and in Poland, was not sorry to end a costly, though successful war. So at Kainardji was signed the most important of all Russo-Turkish treaties. Russia took but little territory. Excepting Azof, Kilburn, Kertch, Yenikale, and the two Kabartas, she gave up all her conquests. The Crim Tartars were to be independent, but by retaining the above-mentioned fortresses on the Black Sea Russia secured her right to free navigation. So far her demands seemed wonderfully moderate. The remaining conditions, however, were subtle and far reaching. The Sultan promised better government and freer religious rights to his Christian subjects, and allowed Russia on all occasions to make representations on their behalf. Thus the Czarina gained the right to interfere in the internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire,

a right which her successors have since exercised whenever they have found it advantageous, and which has been a constant menace to the peace of the world.

The Treaty of Jassy (1792).—Before the next war with Russia, Hasan of Algiers made vigorous attempts to restore the Empire. He was successful in re-establishing the Sultan's authority in Greece, Syria, and Egypt, where, as in other parts of the Turkish dominions, the allegiance to the Porte had become merely nominal. His services, however, were soon needed to defend his country against her arch enemy. In spite of the recent treaty Russia annexed the Crimea in 1783, and by studied insults and open boasts of her "Oriental Project" forced the Porte to declare war in 1787. Hasan at once attacked Kilburn, but was repulsed with great loss by Suwarrow, who showed himself in this war to be the greatest of all Russian generals. Fortunately for Turkey, Austria, who now joined Russia in the hope of driving her once powerful foe from Europe, played a comparatively unimportant part in the struggle, the Emperor being obliged to make peace in 1791, owing to revolts among his own subjects. Russia, however, was well able to continue the war alone. Suwarrow was irresistible. Oczakow and Ismail fell to him, the latter amid scenes of cruelty almost unequalled in the history of war. But at last Europe awoke to the fact that the ambitions of the Czarina must be checked. England and Prussia intervened, and for a second time Catherine had to postpone the realization of the "Oriental Project" until more favourable circumstances should arise. She, therefore, consented to the terms of the Treaty of Jassy, by which

her dominions were extended to the Dneister, thus giving her complete command of the northern shores of the Black Sea.

The Ottoman Empire at the Close of the Eighteenth Century.—The Treaty of Jassy may be regarded as marking the lowest point in the fortunes of the House of Othman. The Empire seemed on the verge of dissolution. Hungary, Transylvania, and all the country to the north of the Black Sea had been definitely lost. Egypt, Syria, Arabia, and Northern Africa were Turkish only in name. Even in the provinces that still acknowledged the Sultan's rule insubordination and civil war were of frequent occurrence. Every department of government was in a state of deplorable corruption. The army and the navy were hopelessly mismanaged, and resembled the forces of Suleiman the Great only in the natural bravery of the men. In the following century Turkey suffered further humiliations and still greater loss of territory; but the reforms of Salim III. and Mahmud II. gave evidence of renewed vigour and sense of responsibility on the part of her rulers, and the Powers of Europe have made it clear to Russia that her "Oriental Project" will never be allowed.

CHAPTER XXX

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN HISTORY FROM THE RESTORATION TO THE FOUNDATION OF THE UNITED STATES

INTRODUCTORY SUMMARY OF EARLY AMERICAN HISTORY

The First White Settlements.—Just three hundred years ago the first permanent English settlement in America was founded at *Jamestown* (1607). By 1624 the colony of *Virginia* numbered 2000 inhabitants.

In 1620 a small band of Puritans, usually called the '*Pilgrims*,' who had left England to escape religious persecution, founded *Plymouth*, the first settlement in New England.

A larger influx of Puritans began in 1629 under the religious tyranny of Archbishop Laud in England. *Boston* was founded in 1630. The spirit of the colonists is illustrated by the foundation in 1636 of Harvard College, the first collegiate institution in America.

The Dutch established trading posts along the coast between Virginia and New England. They derived

their claim to American territory from the discoveries of *Henry Hudson*, an English navigator in Dutch employ, who was the first to sail up the river named after him. A Dutch merchant bought Manhattan Island, on which New York City now stands, from the Indians for the nominal price of twenty-four dollars. The settlement there founded was called *New Amsterdam*. A sharp rivalry between the Dutch and the English set in at once.

The French first settled in Nova Scotia, and in 1608 at *Quebec*, on the St. Lawrence River. The rivalry between France and England was settled for a while by the treaty of St. Germain, in 1632, which left *Canada* and Nova Scotia in French possession.

Principal Events until the Revolution of 1688.—Under charters granted by the English king several other colonies were started along the Atlantic seaboard.

To the north of Virginia the English Lord Baltimore established the colony of *Maryland*, with the capital Baltimore.

Pennsylvania was named after its founder, William Penn, a prominent Quaker. The Quakers were a devout sect of Christians, who led very simple lives, and considered war to be wrong. Their refusal to serve as soldiers often brought them into conflict with the authorities. Pennsylvania became for them a place of refuge from persecution. The name of its chief city, Philadelphia, signified the 'city of brotherly love.' Pennsylvania was first settled in 1682.

Nearly twenty years earlier the Dutch government had been forced to give up New Amsterdam to the English. Charles II. granted the country to his

brother, James, Duke of York. The settlements in the Hudson valley were henceforth called New York. Most of the Dutch settlers remained.

As will be told below, the last English Stuarts attempted to recover the arbitrary power wielded so

disastrously by James I. and Charles I. The English colonies felt the weight of the royal displeasure far more than the liberals in the mother country. The rights of self-government enjoyed until then by the colonists were revoked, and a royal governor ruled according to the king's pleasure.



WILLIAM PENN.

The 'Stuart Tyranny in New England' was ended the moment news of the revolution at home reached Boston. William and Mary were joyously proclaimed as sovereigns, and the old privileges were again asserted.

Reign of Charles II.—Charles II. inclined to the despotism which was the heritage of all Stuarts. But he was careful not to go to extremes, remembering

the fate of his father. While officially adhering to the Church of England, the king was at heart a Catholic, and would have liked to favour Catholics in the government.

A suspicion that Charles planned to overthrow the established Church bred great excitement in Parliament. A law passed in 1673 shut out from office all men not conforming to the State religion. The struggle between king and Parliament led to the formation of two political parties, the '*Whigs*' and the '*Tories*.' The Tories were conservative supporters of the king. The Whigs constituted what in modern politics is called the progressive or liberal party. They stood for constitutional liberty, and favoured the people rather than the king.

Towards the close of the reign the Whigs went too far in their attacks on the royal prerogative. Popular sympathy sided with the king, and the Tories secured a majority in Parliament. The result was that Charles II. succeeded in re-establishing an absolutism resembling that of the earlier Stuarts.

The Revolution of 1688.—When Charles II.'s brother came to the throne as *James II.*, he ruled from the start as an absolute monarch. By the '*Declaration of Indulgence*' he tried to annul the law against Non-conformists, and actually appointed Roman Catholics to important offices. The whole nation, excepting the Catholics, was indignant at the king's disregard of the law of the land. When a son was born to James, and the people feared lest his Catholic rule might be continued, they decided to be rid of him altogether. William of Orange, the Dutch

Stadtholder, who had James' daughter Mary as wife, was secretly invited to take the throne.

In 1688 William of Orange landed in England. James II. found himself deserted and fled to France. A newly called Parliament declared that it was 'inconsistent with the safety and welfare of this Protestant kingdom to be governed by a Popish prince.' William and Mary were hailed as joint sovereigns.

The Bill of Rights (1689).—William owed his throne to the will of the people, expressed through Parliament. In the first year of his reign he assented to the Bill of Rights, a declaration of the 'true, ancient, and indubitable rights of the people of this realm.' This bill was a continuation and complement of the Magna Charta (1215) and the Petition of Right (1628). It guaranteed freedom of speech and debate in Parliament, and forbade the keeping of an army in time of peace, save by consent of Parliament. From now on the dependence of the English kings on Parliament was assured.

Enmity between England and France.—The Stuart kings all had been good friends of the French monarchs. With William of Orange, the most determined foe of Louis XIV. ascended the English throne. The Dutch had been the greatest sufferers from the aggressions of the 'Grand Monarch,' and William at once ranged his new realm against the arch-enemy of his fatherland. In the great European wars of the century that followed England almost invariably fought against France.

Queen Anne.—William and Mary left no heirs for the throne. The son and the-grandson of James II.,

known as the '*Pretenders*,' both attempted to become kings of England, but were shut out from the succession, because they were Cathôlics. Princess Anne of the Stuart family, being of the Protestant faith, was quietly recognized as queen in 1702. Her reign was the glorious period of Marlborough, who carried the fame of the English arms over Europe in the War



SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.

of the Spanish Succession. In home politics there was constant rivalry between the Whigs and the Tories. A new feature of political life was the employment of able authors for party controversy. Most of the writings of that period had a political bearing.

Accession of the Hanoverian Dynasty.—After queen Anne's death, in 1714, the nearest Protestant heir to the English throne was the elector of Hanover, *George I.* Until 1837 the English kings remained also rulers of Hanover. *George I.* (1714-1727) never learned to speak English, and preserved throughout his life his native German manners and customs. Naturally he was not popular with his English subjects. As he could not understand the public affairs of his new realm, the government fell wholly into the hands of ministers responsible to Parliament. *George II.* (1727-1760) spoke English, but did not try to assert himself so as to weaken the ministerial rule. From 1721 until 1742 the administration was guided by *Sir Robert Walpole*. He was a clever

politician and an able financier. Under his ministry England enjoyed twenty years of peace and material prosperity.

George III. (1760-1820).—The third of the 'Four Georges' was English by birth and education. Unlike his father and his grandfather, he took the leading part in the government. His mother had said to him, 'George, be a king,' and a king in the old Stuart or Tudor sense he aimed to be. He tried to exalt his own position by diminishing the power of Parliament. He revived the system of bribery, which William Pitt had wisely discouraged. By



GEORGE III.

bestowing on his supporters titles, pensions, and offices, the king kept up a strong royalist party in Parliament. Unfortunately for England George III. was narrow-minded and obstinate. He caused the defeat of the British arms and the loss of the American colonies.

No Taxation without Representation.—King George III. and his supporters in Parliament wished to pay the soldiers employed for the defence of the colonies by taxing colonial trade. The colonists were violently opposed to any tax voted by the English Parliament, because they had no representatives in that body. They maintained that taxation without representation

The Declaration of Independence briefly summed up the political beliefs held by most of the Americans, and justified the revolt against British authority by enumerating the abuses of the government. The political doctrines set forth in the Declaration were not confined to America. They were, on the contrary, of English and French origin, being mainly based on the political writings of the English philosopher, *John Locke*. These doctrines were the forerunners of revolution in France as well as in America. A quotation from the Declaration of Independence will therefore help to explain why absolutism was overthrown on two continents. After a brief preamble the document continues: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government. . . . But when a long train of abuses and usurpations . . . evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new Guards for their future security."

The First Great Americans.—The young American republic was fortunate in having among its founders a number of eminent men. Two of them are indeed counted among the great men of all ages. They are *George Washington* and *Benjamin Franklin*. Washington, now revered by all Americans as the 'Father of his Country,' was a wealthy planter in Virginia. He had gained some military experience during the English and French war, and was chosen as commander-in-chief of the American forces. In the face of a superior enemy, with undisciplined soldiers, and with half-hearted support from the Congress at Philadelphia, Washington gained victories where only ruin seemed possible.

His true greatness lay less in his skill as a general, than in the steadfastness and nobility of his character. After the revolution his grateful fellow-countrymen honoured him by electing him unanimously as the first President of the Union.



Washington's Administration (1789-1797).— President Washington brilliantly solved the problem of putting the paper constitution into actual practice. In most departments of administration he was able to set precedents which have been observed until the present day.

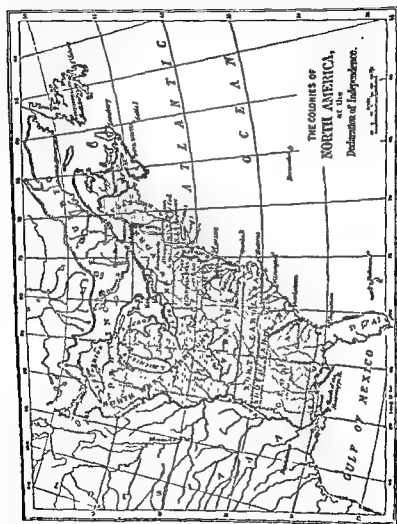
In his task he was helped by some able ministers. *Thomas Jefferson*, the secretary of state, and *Alexander Hamilton*, the secretary of the treasury, displayed notable organizing talent.

Hamilton found the finances in a seemingly hopeless condition. In a series of reports, which are still admired as master-pieces of public finance, he showed the way to a sound national economy.

Washington declined the Presidency for a third term, thus setting an example which was followed by all succeeding presidents. In his *'Farewell Address'* he said: "It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world. . . ." And then: "Harmony and a liberal intercourse with all nations are recommended by policy, humanity, and interest." In this advice of the first president lies the key to the foreign policy of the United States until the present time.

Benjamin Franklin.—Franklin was born in Boston as the fifteenth child of a tallow chandler. His father could not afford to keep him at school, and apprenticed him to an elder brother, a printer. Having quarrelled with his brother, who was an unjust master, Franklin made his way to Philadelphia. When he landed there he was penniless. By untiring industry as a printer and newspaper writer he made himself a wealthy man. Meanwhile he had also risen to be the most influential citizen of Philadelphia. His eye was always on the public welfare. He started the first public library, organized the militia and the fire brigade, introduced pavements and street lamps. His early international renown rested on his scientific work. He first proved that lightning is an electric discharge, by flying a kite just before a thunderstorm, and so leading an electric current from the upper atmosphere to the ground. During the revolution he was American minister in Paris. The respect and admiration which the French felt for Franklin made it easy for him to win France as an ally against Britain. When past eighty years old, he was one of the most active members of the convention which drew up the Constitution of the United States. Few lives are so well fitted as his to be studied by young men who wish to advance themselves by honest industry and by true service to their fellow-men.

The Treaty of Paris (1783).—The American Revolution was ended by the Treaty of Paris. Great Britain acknowledged American independence, and agreed to



other favourable terms. The boundaries of the new nation were fixed along the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes in the north, and along the Mississippi

in the west. Spain kept the country of Florida to the south, from the Atlantic to the mouth of the Mississippi.

Adoption of the American Constitution.—The Confederation under which the war with England had been carried on proved unequal to the task of governing thirteen independent states. Jealousies and quarrels arose among the states, and it looked as though they could not enjoy the fruits of their newly won liberty. Disunion would have placed the Americans at the mercy of their first European enemy.

The free growth of the young nation was assured by the adoption of a federal constitution in 1788. Broadly speaking, the single states gave up to the central government all powers needed for the common welfare, retaining full rights of self-government in all local affairs. The constitution provided for a legislature of two houses, the House of Representatives and the Senate. Executive power was vested in a President, to be chosen anew every four years. A Supreme Court received jurisdiction over all cases which could not be settled in the state courts. The Constitution afforded a sound basis for the Union, henceforth styled the 'United States of America.' A new capital was presently laid out by the first ~~President~~ Washington, whose name the city still

SECTION II

FROM THE FRENCH REVOLUTION UNTIL RECENT TIMES

CHAPTER XXXI

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Causes of the French Revolution.—Several causes of the revolution have already been indicated in earlier parts of this book. They will here be summed up in connection with other important causes.

(1) The kings had destroyed the ancient privileges of the people, and had centred all authority in their own persons. Louis XV. was useless and vicious, while his successor, Louis XVI., was equally useless, though amiable and well intentioned.

(2) The high nobility and the upper clergy lived in luxury and idleness at the expense of the people. The feudal nobles no longer bore their former burden of military service, but retained their manorial villages. They paid almost no taxes, and the peasants by many vexatious impositions which forbade the farmers to touch any wild animal, while the lords rode over the crops in pursuit of game.

(3) The lower and middle classes had made great advances in wealth and intelligence. The French peasants were better off than those of the other continental countries, where the mediaeval serfdom was as yet hardly modified. Yet their lot was very hard, compared with what the poorest farmer demands as his rights nowadays. The immense burden of taxation fell chiefly on the peasantry. The pleasures and privileges of the nobles were insults and burdens to the peasants. And the French peasants during the eighteenth century were no longer so dull that they could not understand the injustice of their position. The more they longed for reform the more passionate did their hatred of the nobility grow.

The middle classes, called in France the 'bourgeoisie,' were chiefly manufacturers and traders. The bulk of the working off-shoots was also drawn from their ranks, so that they felt the rotteness of the administration. The enormous public debt fell heavily on the middle class capitalists, the chief subscribers to government loans. They foresaw that the State would be unable to repay them the vast sums borrowed from them, and they justly held the government responsible for its financial management.

(4) The eighteenth century was an age of free inquiry and bold criticism. All branches of learning and all institutions were regarded in the new light of *Reason*. The learned world inclined to disregard all beliefs and traditions which were not in harmony with reason. In the field of religion and politics this intellectual movement produced a *revolutionary literature*, which set up new theories of the rights of man and the duties of government. While rulers still clung to the 'Divine Right of Kings,' their subjects were taught that government rested on the consent of the governed, and that an oppressed people had the right to revolt against their oppressors. *Voltaire*, a philosopher of great learning and genius, was also a brilliant and witty

of *J. J. Rousseau* were discussed in the high society of Paris as well as in the village gathering of peasants. (They taught that all men were equal, and that artificial class distinctions were evil.) Men, according to Rousseau, should return to a state of nature, where none are rich and none are poor, and where no one has the power to oppress his fellow men.

(5) The example of the *American Revolution* encouraged men to hope that a similar event would bring free institutions to the French people.

(6) Famines were of common occurrence in single districts, and drove the already discontented people to open riots. During the political crisis of 1788 and 1789 'famine was wide-spread.' 'Starvation' added to the great mob of Paris, and its fury to the Revolution that 'ghastly aspect' 'several causes' all other popular upheavals in modern history look tame beside it.

Meeting of the States-General (1789) King Louis XVI. tried his best to better the condition of his people and to reduce the public debt. One of his ministers, *Turgot*, proposed wise reforms, but failed because the selfish upper classes refused to bear their just part of the public burdens. As a last resource the king called a meeting of the States-General. This was a council representing three classes, the nobility, the clergy, and the commons. The last-named class, called the *Third Estate*, had not been summoned since the year 1614. According to an old rule each estate voted as a united body. The nobles and the clergy by their two voices could outvote the middle class with its one vote from the beginning. Violent debates the

third estate simply proceeded to do business without the two others. By a revolutionary measure they declared themselves to be the proper representatives of the nation under the new name of *National Assembly*. Many members of the nobility and the clergy ultimately joined this new law-making body.

Fall of the Bastille (July 14, 1789).—The Bastille was a fortress in Paris, which was used as a prison for political offenders. Hundreds of innocent men had been shut up in its dark cells, merely because some person with influence at court had wished to put them out of the way. The people rightly looked upon the Bastille as an embodiment of tyranny.

A frenzied mob seized the arms in a public armoury and attacked the Bastille. Its garrison was murdered, the prisoners were set free, and the fortress was razed to the ground amidst the delirious rejoicings of the populace. Liberal men throughout Europe welcomed the event as the beginning of a freer age. The people had triumphantly asserted their rights; despotism had been dealt a mortal blow.

For the future, course of the Revolution the first victory of the mob had terrible consequences. The lower classes now felt conscious of their power, and were soon impelled to further acts of violence.

The King is brought to Paris.—Within three months after the fall of the Bastille the Paris populace demanded that the king should come to the capital.

There were rumours that he was plotting to use the army against the revolutionists. Impelled by hatred and hunger, and by that aimless excitement which always makes an ignorant mob dangerous, an immense host marched from

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Paris to Versailles. Marie Antoinette, the queen, had by her pride enflamed the anger of the lower classes. A dirty crowd stormed the palace at Versailles, intending to kill the royal family. Lafayette, the leader of the National Guard, barely saved their lives.

The mob brought the king and his whole family triumphantly to Paris.

The National Assembly presently was also obliged to meet in Paris instead of Versailles. Henceforth the mob exerted a steadily increasing pressure on the deliberations. Fear of mob violence sealed the lips of moderate members, while the extreme radicals were encouraged by the applause of the masses.

Work of the National Assembly.—The National Assembly broke completely with the past, and set up new institutions based on the teachings of Rousseau and other theorists.

On August 4, 1789, all titles and privileges of nobility were abolished. The whole social order of France was thus upset by a single resolution. The Assembly worked out a *new constitution*, making the government a limited monarchy, in which most of the power rested in a Legislative Assembly of one member. The old provinces were abolished, and the country was newly divided into departments named after the rivers and mountains.

Emigration of the Nobles and Attempted Flight of the King.—Meanwhile the peasants had risen in many provinces, had killed the nobles, and burned their castles. Thousands of nobles fled over the borders and sought help against their democratic countrymen at the foreign courts. The three great Eastern powers, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, were too much

preoccupied with the division of Poland to pay earnest attention to French affairs. But the absolute rulers of Europe all felt alarmed at the uprising of democracy in France, because they feared lest their own subjects might be fired to revolution by the French example.

In no case could war be declared against the revolutionists so long as the king was virtually a prisoner in the hands of the excitable Paris mob. Plots to effect the escape of the royal family were constantly planned, and finally the flight beyond the Rhine was actually undertaken. By promptness the king and queen could easily have reached their friends, who expected them with a cavalry escort. Invaluable hours were wasted, however, and the royal family were arrested in a village half way from the borders.

Hereafter the king was closely guarded. Many people declared that his attempted flight was equivalent to an abdication of the throne, while a large party also regarded him as a traitor against his own country. The king himself was completely intimidated, and soon after took the oath to adhere to the new constitution, which stripped him of nearly all prerogatives.

✓ **The Declaration of Pillnitz, and the Battle of Valmy.**
—In August, 1791, the Prussian King, Frederick William II., together with the Austrian Emperor, issued a declaration from Pillnitz, in which they threatened to take steps against the French revolutionists. The latter were incensed by the foreign interference in the internal affairs of France, and forced Louis to declare war. In the ensuing cam-

paigns the raw French recruits were at first beaten. But their enthusiasm for the cause of liberty soon checked the progress of the allied Prussian and Austrian armies. The former were stopped by a severe cannonade at *Valmy* (September, 1792). The commanding Prussian general, who had at first despised the French armies, ordered an ignominious retreat. Such was the beginning of those wars between Europe and revolutionary France, by which ultimately a French military usurper, Napoleon, was to become dictator of Europe.

~ Influence of Foreign Intervention on the Progress of the Revolution.—The Legislative Assembly provided by the new constitution met in October, 1791. Under the excitement caused by the declaration of Pillnitz a majority of democrats was elected. The members of the moderate democratic party were called *Girondists*, while the radical republicans were termed *Mountainists*, because their seats in the assembly hall were high up. Danton, Robespierre, and Marat were the leaders of the Mountainists.

The king still had the right to suspend laws, which he thought bad, by a *veto*. When he vetoed some violent decrees of the Legislative Assembly, the Girondists incited an armed mob to attack the royal palace, and to demand that the veto should be abolished.

The king and his family were shortly afterwards imprisoned in an ancient building known as the Temple. Thus the last remnant of the royal authority was destroyed.

Meanwhile the French armies in the field had

been defeated, and the Prussians were on the march towards Paris. Danton, at the time Minister of Justice, determined to terrify the royalists and the foreign allies by ordering the wholesale execution of the churchmen and aristocrats confined in the Paris prisons. About one thousand people were killed in these 'September massacres.'

Declaration of the Republic; Execution of Louis XVI.—The Legislative Assembly dissolved itself on September 21, 1792, and its place was at once taken by the *National Convention*. This body on the same day declared France to be a Republic. When the French generals followed up the victory of Valmy by the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands (now Belgium) and of some principalities along the Rhine, the Convention decided to extend the Revolution into the other European countries. They spread copies of a decree promising 'fraternity and assistance to all peoples who desire their liberty.' This promise was really dangerous for the neighbouring governments, because many people were anxious to follow the French example, and to shake off the bonds of absolutism and of feudal oppression. Liberal men everywhere felt sympathy for the revolution.

But the sympathy gave place to fear and disgust when the National Convention had the king tried as a traitor and executed by the guillotine¹ (Jan. 21, 1793). The execution was both a crime and a political blunder. It increased that horror of the

¹ An engine for the swift and painless decapitation of criminals, named after Dr. Guillotin, who advocated its general use.

revolution which its foreign friends had already begun to feel after the September massacres.

✓ **Coalition against France.**—In England especially public opinion now urged the government into war



WILLIAM PITT.

with France. Such a war was also necessary for purely political reasons, because the threatened French conquest of Holland was a menace to English trade and sea-power. Under the great prime minister *William Pitt*, the younger, England carried on war

by sea and land, and formed one European coalition after another for the purpose of forcing France back within its original boundaries. The first coalition, embracing Holland, Spain, Austria, Prussia, and many lesser states, opened the war in 1793 by invading France from three sides. The French armies were beaten.

✓**The Committee of Public Safety.**—The National Convention met the danger with incredible energy and enthusiasm. The Girondists, who quarrelled with the radical Mountainists, were arrested by order of an armed mob that invaded the Assembly hall. The Mountainists, now left in sole control, organized a secret 'Committee of Public Safety' which wielded absolute power over the country. The government, though still a republic in name, was thereby changed to an oligarchy. '*Robespierre*' was the head of the committee.

Its ablest member was *Carnot*, perhaps the greatest war minister in history. He raised and organized immense armies, appointed generals, and planned campaigns. Within a year he cleared France of its foreign enemies, and laid the military basis for the later glorious victories of Napoleon.

✓**The Reign of Terror** (June, 1793, to July, 1794).—The Committee's method of enforcing obedience to its orders was simple and terrible. Whoever showed signs of disloyalty or disobedience was put to death. Executions by the guillotine became a daily spectacle enjoyed by the viler portion of the Paris mob. In July, 1794, the number of daily decapitations in Paris rose to 196. 'The Queen, Marie Antoinette', and twenty-one Girondist leaders were among the victims.

A patriotic young woman, named *Charlotte Corday*, hoped that she might stop the Terror by killing one of its chief advocates. She made her way to the rooms of *Marat*, and stabbed him to death. But here, as always, assassination proved no remedy. On the contrary, *Marat's* colleagues revenged his assassination by increased cruelty.



MARIE ANTOINETTE.

There is no space here to give a clear account of those stirring times. New men and new ideas, some truly great, others visionary or fanatic, followed one another in bewildering swiftness. It was 'during the Reign of Terror' that 'the old calendar was abolished together with the Christian religion. The whole social order in all its aspects' was to be 'started on a new basis. Among the sensible reforms was the metric system of weights and measures, which has survived to the present day, and promises to become the universal standard throughout the civilized world.'

'**Fall of Robespierre; End of the Terror.**—By having his opponents in the Convention, notably Danton, brought to the guillotine, Robespierre made himself dictator. He declared that he wished to establish an ideal government based on brotherly love, liberty, and equality. He denounced atheism, the denial of God's existence, as immoral, and led the Convention to pass a decree establishing the worship of the 'Supreme Being' as the national cult. All opposition was punished with death. In six weeks 1366 people

were executed. At last Robespierre's own associates began to fear lest his ambition might send them also to the guillotine. They suddenly turned against him, and denounced him in the Convention as a traitor. Next day Robespierre's head fell under the same knife which had for over three months been the symbol and instrument of his rule. By his death the reign of Terror was ended. The mass of the French citizens was tired of the constant excitement which had been kept up by the revolutionary agitators. They wished to return to a quiet and normal life.

Formation of the Directory (1795).—The Convention now drew up a new constitution, by which the executive power was vested in a Directory of five members. The legislative body was to consist of two houses, while the three former legislatures of the revolution had been single houses. The franchise (right to vote), which in 1793 had been based on universal suffrage, was now restricted to citizens paying a certain amount of taxes. This and other measures angered the Paris mob. On October 5 an armed rabble advanced to attack the assembly hall where the Convention sat. But a firm young artillery officer met the mob with grape shot. Before his well aimed cannon they fled in dismay. This officer was the first man who understood how mob rule could be beaten down. His name was *Napoleon Bonaparte*.

CHAPTER XXXII

THE NAPOLEONIC ERA

Early Life of Napoleon.—Napoleon was born in 1769 at Ajaccio, the capital of Corsica. He was the second son of the patrician family of Bonaparte. During his boyhood, Corsica was conquered by the French, and the Bonapartes thus became French subjects. Napoleon showed unusual ability as a student at the military school at Brienne. In 1793, when the port of Toulon allied itself with the English against the revolutionary government, Napoleon was an artillery officer in the army sent to punish the city. By his plans, which were accepted by the commanding generals, the city was soon forced to surrender. Though only twenty-four years of age, he had now made a reputation. During the following year he served as a general of artillery, and won influence among leading members of the government.

Napoleon's First Italian Campaign (1796-1797).—Under the Directory Napoleon was entrusted with the supreme command of the army sent against the Austrians in Italy.

The older generals were at first distrustful and jealous of their young commandant. But they soon learned to

admire him as a genius in the art of war. Napoleon always knew how to win the enthusiastic devotion of his soldiers. His ability to make stirring addresses was shown in his first proclamation: "Soldiers, you are ill fed and almost naked. The government owes you much, but can do nothing for you. Your patience and your courage do you honour, but procure you neither glory nor profit. I am about to lead you into the most fertile plains of the world: there you will find great cities and rich provinces; there you will win honour, glory, and riches. Soldiers of the army of Italy, will you lack courage?"

The ensuing campaign was the most remarkable fought on Italian soil since the days of Hannibal. The Austrians were out-generalled and beaten at every point. In the spring of 1797 Bonaparte marched close to Vienna, the Austrian capital, and forced the emperor to make peace. By the treaty of *Campo Formio* the Austrian Netherlands were ceded to France, and the Rhine was accepted as the eastern boundary of the republic. Northern Italy was converted into two new states, modelled after the French pattern, called the Cisalpine and the Ligurian Republics.

The Egyptian Expedition (1798-1799).—After the humiliation of Austria, England remained the one great enemy of the French Republic. Napoleon conceived the adventurous scheme of attacking England in India, the source of so much English wealth and power. Since the English fleet controlled the ocean, the expedition had to go overland. Egypt was to be the base for a further advance to the East. The Directors gladly assented to Napoleon's plans, because they feared him as a political rival at home.

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of a foreign invasion. At home also the Directors had great trouble with the royalists and the extreme republicans.

When Napoleon heard of these troubles, he determined to seize the government himself. Leaving his army behind, he hastened back to Paris. His immense popularity made it easy for him to overthrow the Directory, and draw up the new constitution of the year 1799. By this the executive power was vested in three consuls chosen for ten years. Napoleon as First Consul had practically sole and absolute power, his two colleagues being merely the instruments of his will. When the people were asked to ratify the constitution, over three million voted for it, and only 1500 voted against it.

Defeat of the Second Coalition.—As soon as internal affairs were settled, Napoleon prepared to retrieve the military losses suffered during his absence. By secrecy and promptness he succeeded in leading an army across the Alps without the knowledge of the Austrian general campaigning in the western Po valley. The Austrians were taken by surprise. In the battle of *Marengo* they were completely defeated, so that Italy was regained at one blow. Austria was glad to make peace on the same terms as those given by the treaty of Campo Formio. England also signed a treaty of peace at Amiens (1802), by which she restored to France most of the conquests made since the beginning of the war.

Napoleon's Peace Works.—Napoleon's government showed that he also possessed genius as a statesman and administrator. Prosperity and order soon re-

Together with his picked army, Napoleon took a number of scholars, who were to study the ancient monuments of the East. The fleet was fortunate to escape the British squadron cruising in the Mediterranean, and landed safely in Egypt. Lower Egypt was conquered with slight losses to the French, who defeated the Mamluks at the Battle of the Pyramids. But the successes of Napoleon came to naught through the British superiority at sea. Admiral *Nelson* attacked the French fleet, which was anchored in Abukir bay, and destroyed it completely. This celebrated naval *battle of the Nile* cut off the communications between Egypt and France. Napoleon then marched into Syria and besieged Acre, but an English squadron under Sir Sidney Smith enabled the garrison to resist him successfully. "That man," said Napoleon, "has spoilt my destiny." Abandoning his schemes of empire in the East, he returned to Egypt, where he defeated the Turks in the land battle of Abukir. He then sailed for France, leaving his army under the command of General Kléber. This able leader gained another victory over the Turks at Heliopolis (1800), but soon afterwards he was murdered in Cairo. In the following year Sir Ralf Abercrombie defeated the French at Alexandria, after which the remnant of Napoleon's army was sent back to France, and Egypt was restored to the Sultan.

Napoleon becomes First Consul.—During Napoleon's absence the Directory got into difficulties. England formed the Second Coalition of European states against France. The French generals were beaten, Italy was lost, and the republic itself was in danger

converted into an empire. Napoleon assumed the crown amid ceremonies imitating closely the coronation of Charlemagne. The Emperor's power was practically that of a military dictator.

His sudden rise could not have come about if the French people had really been ripe for a democratic government. That Napoleon had aimed at monarchy from the start, appears from the following remark made by him in 1799: "... a republic ... is a chimera with which the French are infatuated, but which will pass away in time like all the others. What they want is glory and the satisfaction of their vanity; as for liberty, of that they have no conception. ... The nation must have a head, a head which is rendered illustrious by glory."

Renewal of European War.—Napoleon might have enjoyed the fruits of his victories in peace if he could have checked his ambition. But he constantly interfered in the affairs of other states, and planned the foundation of a French colonial empire embracing India and parts of America. England was forced to renew the war in self-defence. Russia, Austria, and Sweden joined England in the Third Coalition (1805).

Napoleon made gigantic preparations for an invasion of England. Troops and transport vessels were held in readiness at Boulogne. Had the English relaxed their vigilance over the Channel for a day, they might have been lost. The danger vanished by the famous victory of admiral *Nelson* over the combined French and Spanish fleets off cape *Trafalgar*, near Gibraltar (1805).

Nelson's order. "England expects every man to do his duty," will never be forgotten. The heroic admiral fell

turned to France. In all his reforms Napoleon worked with an energy and rapidity which seemed almost superhuman. The most beneficial reform was his new code of laws, called the Code Napoleon.

It was prepared by the most eminent French jurists, and represented a summary of the legal reforms introduced during the revolution. It was largely based on old French and Roman law. Under the name of 'Code Civil' it



NAPOLEON.

still forms the existing law of France, while several other countries, such as the Argentine Republic, Mexico, and Italy, follow the code more or less closely in their laws. During his confinement at St. Helena, Napoleon once said: "My true glory is not that I have gained forty battles; Waterloo will efface the memory of those victories. But that which nothing can efface, which will live for ever, is my civil code."

Napoleon Crowns himself Emperor.—The First Consul aimed at making his rule permanent and hereditary. In 1802 he was made consul for life, and in 1804 he put the question to the French nation, whether it wanted him to bear the title of Emperor. Nearly all the citizens voted in favour of having the republic

converted into an empire. Napoleon assumed the crown amid ceremonies imitating closely the coronation of Charlemagne. The Emperor's power was practically that of a military dictator.

His sudden rise could not have come about if the French people had really been ripe for a democratic government. That Napoleon had aimed at monarchy from the start, appears from the following remark made by him in 1799: "... a republic ... is a chimera with which the French are infatuated, but which will pass away in time like all the others. What they want is glory and the satisfaction of their vanity; as for liberty, of that they have no conception. ... The nation must have a head, a head which is rendered illustrious by glory."

Renewal of European War.—Napoleon might have enjoyed the fruits of his victories in peace if he could have checked his ambition. But he constantly interfered in the affairs of other states, and planned the foundation of a French colonial empire embracing India and parts of America. England was forced to renew the war in self-defence. Russia, Austria, and Sweden joined England in the Third Coalition (1805).

Napoleon made gigantic preparations for an invasion of England. Troops and transport vessels were held in readiness at Boulogne. Had the English relaxed their vigilance over the Channel for a day, they might have been lost. The danger vanished by the famous victory of admiral *Nelson* over the combined French and Spanish fleets off cape *Trafalgar*, near Gibraltar (1805).

Nelson's order: "England expects every man to do his duty," will never be forgotten. The heroic admiral fell

in the thick of the fight. After Trafalgar the British were absolute lords of the sea.

In the land campaign Napoleon was more brilliant than ever. By his rapid marches he captured 30,000



NELSON.

Austrians at Ulm, on the Upper Danube. The French soldiers remarked that the Emperor made war no longer with their arms, but with their legs. At *Austerlitz*, near Vienna, the Austrians and Russians were completely beaten. Prussia was over-

thrown, and the French armies marched triumphantly through Berlin. The Russians still continued the war, and fought with the utmost bitterness at Eylau (February, 1807). A few months later they also suffered a decisive defeat at *Friedland*. Moved partly by admiration for Napoleon's genius, the Czar Alexander I. concluded the peace of *Tilsit* (1807). The two arbiters of continental Europe met on a raft anchored in the middle of the Niemen river, between the two armies.

The Peace of Tilsit.—At Tilsit Napoleon proposed that he and the Russian Czar should practically divide Europe between them. Prussia was deprived of nearly half her dominions. Sweden and Turkey were to be partly incorporated in Russia. In fact Finland was taken from Sweden shortly afterwards. The countries west of Russia which did not form part of Napoleon's empire were either ruled by his relatives or forced into alliance with him. His youngest brother Jerome was king of Westphalia, formerly western Prussia. Louis Bonaparte was king of Holland. Napoleon himself assumed the kingship over Italy, and appointed his stepson Eugene Beauharnais as viceroy. Joseph Bonaparte, the oldest brother, received the royal crown of Naples. The princes of Western Germany were joined into the 'Confederation of the Rhine,' under Napoleon's protectorate.

By these changes the old German Empire was dissolved. Francis I. therefore abdicated the throne of the Holy Roman Empire, and assumed the new title of 'Emperor of Austria.'

The Continental System.—Great Britain alone refused to bow down before the new Caesar of Europe. Since Napoleon could not reach her with his armies, he determined to cripple her trade. From Berlin he issued a decree forbidding all states of Europe to have any communication with England. British ships and British goods entering any continental harbour were confiscated. The measure caused great distress to the labourers, manufacturers, and shippers of England. But it was felt with equal severity by the European people. Prices of imported goods rose above the means of all but the rich. Trade was ruined everywhere. Russia especially had been dependent on English supplies of cloth and other manufactures, and the discomfort caused by the continental system soon made the French alliance unpopular. Meanwhile it was impossible for Napoleon to guard the whole coast of Europe. The English organized a vast smuggling service, and continued secretly to import great quantities of goods.

The Peninsular War in Spain (1808-1812).—In 1808 Napoleon interfered in the affairs of Spain and Portugal, because these countries continued to open their ports to British traders. Joseph Bonaparte, king of Naples, was now made king of Spain, and the crown of Naples went to Murat, the Emperor's brother-in-law. The Spaniards, who have always been a proud and patriotic people, at once rebelled against the French king. Their resistance was more dangerous than any yet encountered by Napoleon, because most of the population took up arms. When one province was pacified the struggle was renewed in another.

The Portuguese and Spanish patriots got help from a British army under the Duke of Wellington. The French generals were slowly but surely forced back and driven across the Pyrenees. The Spanish war cost France a great deal of blood and treasure, and undermined Napoleon's prestige in Europe. The news of the British successes in the peninsula encouraged the other enemies of Napoleon, and so led to his final defeat.

The Russian Expedition (1812).—Beside the hardships imposed by the continental system, the Czar had several reasons for repenting of his agreement with Napoleon. The latter would not allow the annexation of Turkey to Russia. He also insulted Alexander by asking for the hand of a Russian princess, and then suddenly marrying¹ the arch-duchess Maria Louisa of Austria, before the Czar had even sent a reply.

The growing bitterness of Russia led to a declaration of war in 1812. Napoleon had the resources of nearly all Western Europe at his disposal. He equipped an army of nearly half a million men, one-third of whom was drawn from France. In June the 'Grand Army' crossed the Niemen river and invaded Russia. The Russian generals wisely avoided a pitched battle with the invincible strategist, and retreated eastward before the invaders, denuding the country of supplies on their march. At *Borodino*, not far from Moscow, they tried to stop Napoleon's progress. After terrible

¹ Napoleon's first wife, Josephine, was the daughter of the French general Beauharnais. She bore him no son, and he was anxious to make his throne hereditary. His vanity also prompted him to seek a marriage alliance with one of the old royal houses. He had himself divorced from Josephine, and married a daughter of the Austrian Emperor. By her he had a son, who received the title 'King of Rome.'

fighting they were beaten, but retreated in good order.

Napoleon entered the ancient capital of Moscow as conqueror, and expected shortly to dictate the terms of peace to Alexander. The inhabitants of Moscow had all fled from their homes, and the Grand Army had not yet settled in the deserted city, when fires broke out in many places. Three days later nine-tenths of the city lay in ashes. Napoleon now made a fatal mistake. He waited in the ruined city for five weeks, always hoping that the Czar would ask for peace. Not until October 19 did he order the retreat. That year the winter set in much earlier than usual. The army was overtaken by snow and bitterly cold weather. The Russian soldiers, who were accustomed to the cold, harassed the starving French divisions on all sides, so that the retreat was turned into an endless battle. 250,000 men were slain, starved, or frozen, while 130,000 were taken prisoners. A woeful remnant of 17,000 was all of the Grand Army that escaped from this most awful campaign in European history.

Abdication of Napoleon (1814).—During the past six years the Prussian administration had been thoroughly reformed in all its branches. Many social improvements of the French revolution were introduced, and the army was remodelled along the lines learned from Napoleon. The new social freedom and the hatred of the French masters combined to arouse an intense German patriotism. The Prussian nation only waited for the first opportunity to drive out its oppressors.

When the destruction of the Grand Army became known in Germany, the Prussian king was forced

by his people to declare war against Napoleon. The latter raised another large army in France, an army consisting largely of half-grown youths, the manhood of the country already having been sacrificed in scores of battles all over Europe. After several bitterly contested engagements had been fought in Saxony, the Austrians also joined the allies against Napoleon. During three days a series of battles was fought around the city of *Leipzig*, and the French were surrounded and crushed by superior numbers. The allied armies followed Napoleon across the Rhine, and at the same time the British and Spanish forces crossed the Pyrenees. Napoleon was ready to fight on to the very last; but his own generals disobeyed. He had to abdicate, and suffer himself to be hurried to the little island of *Elba*. There he was allowed to rule as a petty sovereign, surrounded by a few faithful adherents.

The Hundred Days and Waterloo (1815).—The Bourbon prince Louis XVIII., brother of the late king Louis XVI., was set as king over France by the allies. He was a dull man, to whom the saying, 'The Bourbons learn nothing and forget nothing,' was well applied. He and his court tried to set France back to the condition before the revolution. The people were soon dissatisfied, and longed for the return of the Napoleonic rule.

Napoleon was informed about the state of public feeling in France. He escaped from Elba with a small following and landed on the south coast of France. Everywhere his old soldiers went over to him. The Bourbons had to flee, while the

emperor entered Paris amid the acclamations of the multitude.

The allies at once declared Napoleon as 'an enemy and disturber of the peace of the world.' While their forces hastened towards France, Napoleon



DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

with his accustomed energy and swiftness raised a new army. He first defeated the Prussians, and then attacked the English army under the Duke of Wellington, which held a strong position on the heights of *Waterloo*, not far from Brussels. The troops on both sides fought all day with incredible bravery. Towards evening Napoleon

thought he had the victory. But the Prussian army of General Blucher appeared on his flank at the last moment. The imperial army was annihilated (June 18, 1815).

A number of circumstances combined to decide this most momentous battle in modern history. In the morning the ground was soft from rain, and Napoleon could not move his cannon into good positions until late in the afternoon. Thus a shower of rain can be said to have caused the downfall of the Corsican giant. Wellington and Blucher deserve equal glory for their share in the victory. Wellington was called the 'Iron Duke' for the inflexible determination with which he held his ground against the

deadly charges of the French cavalry. Blucher performed a wonderful march with a beaten army, and turned the threatened defeat of the English into a decisive victory.

Last Years of Napoleon (1815-1821).—After the battle of Waterloo Napoleon gave himself up as prisoner on board a British man of war. His further presence in or near Europe was thought to endanger the world's peace. He was therefore exiled to the little island of St. Helena, in the middle of the Southern Atlantic. During his exile he composed historical memoirs.

Estimate of Napoleon.—*Napoleon was the greatest military genius and the greatest administrator of modern times. But his almost superhuman talents and energy were mostly used for selfish ends. His personal ambition could find no limits in its aggressions on Europe, and so brought about his final downfall. From all the confusion and bloodshed caused by him there emerged in the end some lasting good. By his conquests ideas of social justice and liberal administration were spread throughout Europe. When the sovereigns reconstructed Europe in 1815 they would have liked to re-establish despotic institutions, but found that Napoleon's regime had already rooted liberalism in the minds of the people.*

In Germany and Italy Napoleon had extinguished numerous small and badly governed states. He had shown the people of these countries the advantages of political unity. Thenceforward they never ceased to aspire to national union. In other words, Napoleon hastened the building up of modern Germany and Italy.

As for France, she got from Napoleon lasting glory and a short-lived imperial sway. But she paid dearly for her conquests with the blood of her people. And Napoleon's fall left France with a territory smaller than that owned before the revolution.

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE MATERIAL AND INTELLECTUAL PROGRESS OF THE WORLD SINCE THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

Introduction.—Before continuing our study of modern times, we must stop to consider certain phases of development outside of the field of purely political history.

The actions of kings and statesmen have always been largely determined for them by the circumstances of their subjects. The greater the ignorance and the poverty of the people was, the more absolute and oppressive could be the rule of the government. Men who have to struggle hard all their lives to get enough food and clothing, take no interest in public affairs. Daily hardships tire their bodies and enfeeble their minds. They quietly bear the burdens which seem to be a natural part of their existence.

Since the close of the eighteenth century the common people of Europe have demanded and received an ever-increasing share in the management of government. The principle of popular rights has come into force since the French Revolution, that terrible protest against the exclusive rule of the privileged classes. We have learned above that the Revolution was preceded by free philosophical inquiry, and by a more general spread of intelligence among the French people. The successive revolutions and reforms of the nineteenth century were similarly conditioned by an

advance in knowledge. The fundamental reasons for modern political and social changes lie in the remarkable intellectual and material progress which distinguishes the last hundred years from all other periods of history. This chapter will therefore deal briefly with the most notable inventions, discoveries, and social improvements of recent times.

The Progress of Science.—Science is the foundation on which all modern inventions rest. Chemists and physicists prepared that body of knowledge which led to the invention of steam engines and of thousands of improved manufacturing methods. Biologists and zoologists, the students of plant and animal life, made most of the discoveries through which medical skill has been so much increased, for the benefit of mankind.

The development of modern science dates from Sir Francis Bacon, the founder of the inductive method (about 1600). After his time knowledge expanded slowly but steadily. In the second half of the eighteenth century Europe already counted a large number of scientific men. The German philosopher *Kant* and the French mathematician and astronomer *Laplace* are the intellectual giants of that time. In France a group of scholars under the leadership of *Diderot* published a work of twenty-eight volumes on the whole body of existing human knowledge (1751-1772). This publication they called the *Encyclopedia*, whence the name of Encyclopedists is usually given to its authors.

Napoleon encouraged scientific men, although he tried to prevent the spread of political intelligence among the people. He once said: "The true con-

quests, the only conquests which cost no regrets, are those achieved over ignorance."

After the close of the Napoleonic era every field of science was cultivated with ever-increasing ardour. The enthusiastic labours of many devoted seekers for truth gave mankind a control over natural forces, such as few people had dreamed of. Through science man, truly became the master of nature.

It is difficult to pick out the most eminent names, where so many are great. Judged by the blessings given to their fellow-men, the two chemists *Liebig* and *Pasteur* should perhaps be placed first. The German *Liebig* (1803-1873) may, through his numerous discoveries and inventions, be called the father of organic chemistry. When a Paris newspaper organized a popular vote to determine who was the greatest Frenchman of the nineteenth century, the first place was given to *Pasteur*.

The man who has most profoundly influenced succeeding thought is the Englishman *Charles Darwin*. After many years of study, and after a voyage round the world, devoted to research in zoology, botany, and geology, *Darwin* published in 1859 his *Origin of Species*. In this book he confirmed and enlarged the old theory that existing plants and animals have gradually developed from lower forms, and probably all spring from some one primitive form. The process is called *evolution*. *Darwin's* theory was more bitterly contested than any idea ever published before. But now his views are accepted by nearly the whole scientific world. The conception of evolution has been found to explain the growth of all things whatsoever. It has brought a new era, not only for natural sciences, but also for history, law, philosophy, and education.

The Moral Aspect of 'Pure Science.—The succeeding paragraphs will mention some of the concrete results of scientific work, and of their application to practical life. A word should first be said of the intellectual and moral value of pure science. The men who devote themselves wholly to the search for scientific truth are following the loftiest purpose attainable by man. Their work has already done more to raise mankind to a higher level than the conquerors or legislators or religious teachers could do in a thousand years. Their fame is still small, because the nature of their work cannot be understood by the majority of men. Their example makes it clear to an ever-increasing proportion of mankind, that *truth* is the highest and safest moral ideal.

The Invention of Steam Engines.—In 1769 the Englishman *James Watt* invented the first steam engine. He found thereby a convenient way of using natural forces—heat converted into motion—to do work which had before been done by man power. The steam engine was rapidly perfected and combined with other machines for manufacturing purposes. Most notable among these were two English inventions, the spinning jenny of Hargreaves (1767), and the power loom of Cartwright (1785). With primitive methods, using the hand spindle, one person could spin one thread at a time. With improved spinning machines driven by water or steam power, one operator could soon control the spinning of twelve thousand threads.

The Factory System.—So long as primitive hand labour was used, most artisans worked at home. Very little capital was needed for these 'domestic industries,' where only small amounts of raw materials

were bought at a time. Machines were expensive, and their use called for large amounts of raw materials. Hence wealthy men started 'factories,' in which they employed workmen for wages. Soon a



JAMES WATT.

single employer had hundreds of workmen in his pay, and dependent on his management. Factories multiplied in places where coal and iron were close at hand. In districts like that of Lancashire in England, which used to be sparsely inhabited, populous cities quickly grew up. Many thousands of people who had formerly lived in the open country,

were suddenly crowded into the new industrial centres.

The machine-made goods could be sold more cheaply than the goods made in the old-fashioned way. Hence, all those people who continued in their domestic manufacture had to lower the prices of their products, and suffered want. Especially among the weavers the transition period from the old to the factory system brought terrible suffering.

English Industrial and Commercial Supremacy.—The 'industrial revolution,' as it is usually called, happened first in England. While the wars between France and the other powers retarded the growth of manufactures in continental Europe, England became the workshop of the world. English cloth and iron ware became indispensable to the Russian peasant, the American pioneer, and the Indian prince. The industrial and commercial supremacy of England lasted until the second half of the nineteenth century, but is now closely disputed by the United States, Germany, and France.

Railways.—Roadways of parallel wooden rails have been used since ancient times. Iron rails for running tramcars drawn by horses were first employed at some Welsh mines, to bring coal to the sea. In 1804 Trevethick constructed the first steam locomotive for use in drawing these tramcars. Ten years later, in 1814, *G. Stephenson* built an improved locomotive, but still failed to impress the public with the value of his invention. He continued to perfect the engine, and in 1825 he constructed a locomotive which could draw a heavy train at the speed of eleven

miles an hour. Five years later his 'Rocket,' built for the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, attained a speed of thirty-five miles an hour. This success provoked a fever of railway construction throughout England. By 1840 all the principal cities of the island were connected by rail.

The principal European countries and America quickly followed England's example. The great railways which in the United States and Canada have been built across the continent, have been more efficient as builders of empire than any army in the world's history. The surplus population of Europe has been distributed over territories which recently were an unbroken wilderness. Thriving cities and smiling farmlands have arisen with magic swiftness in the old haunts of wild beasts.

Effects of Railway Construction.—With the railway came a new era for all nations. The transportation of goods became cheap, rapid, and reliable. The surplus of the farm, the ore of the mine, the product of the factory, could all be distributed easily throughout the country. The poor man's food was cheapened, and local famines became a horror of the past. Books and newspapers could reach every hamlet; education was spread more widely and efficiently than ever before. The former discomforts and dangers of foreign travel disappeared; men could now easily visit other nations, and discover that the strangers also have many superior qualities. Racial prejudice, one of the worst children of ignorance, met in the railway its sworn enemy.

Steam Navigation.—In 1807 the first steamboat, built by the American *Robert Fulton*, made its trial trip on the Hudson River. Fulton also constructed

the first steamer that crossed the Atlantic Ocean, in 1819. His voyage from Savannah to Liverpool took twenty-six days. The fast liners of the leading English and German steamship companies now cross the Atlantic in five days.

The effect of cheap and rapid ocean transport has nowhere been farther reaching than in the Far East. China and Japan were brought within a month's journey of Europe. The giant steamers that exchanged the raw products of Asia for the manufactures of Europe, imported also the new ideas from the West, which soon were to transform the ancient Eastern institutions from their very foundations.

The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 linked India and the Far East still closer to Europe. The Asiatic traffic was again directed through its historic channels, and old Mediterranean ports like Genoa entered on a new period of prosperity.

Electric Telegraphs and Telephones.--The most wonderful of all the new inventions was the electric telegraph (*tele*=far; *graph*=write). Experiments were made with it early in the nineteenth century, but its general use dates from the invention by the American *Morse* of a practical apparatus for sending and receiving messages (1844). After several failures, involving immense labour and pecuniary losses, telegraphic cables were also laid on the bottom of the ocean, connecting England with America. Now electric messages can be conveyed to all parts of the globe. In 1896 the Italian *Marconi* patented a system of wireless telegraphy. **Marconi*.

grams' are now constantly flashed through the ether between England and America. Vessels exchange messages with land stations and with one another while speeding through mid-ocean.

Telephones came into general use after the American *Bell* had invented in 1877 the perfected instrument named after him. Wireless telephony, already adopted by the American navy, is the last wonder of science made subservient to the uses of warfare (1907). More remarkable even than the preceding, though of a less important character, is the recent invention of telephotography, by which photographic likenesses can be transmitted over an ordinary telegraph wire (1907). All these inventions tend to bind the nations together into one large family. Peking is now nearer to Paris than London was a century ago.,

Penny Postage and the Universal Postal Union.—Until the beginning of the nineteenth century it was difficult to send letters from one part of the world to another. Even within the single countries postage was very expensive, and only larger cities had regular postal connections. In 1830 it still cost over a shilling to send a letter from London to Ireland. In 1837 the English parliament adopted a uniform postage of one penny per letter, and the English example was soon followed by every civilized state. Under the old system every Englishman sent on the average four letters per year. In 1900 the average reached 56 per head of the total population, or the incredible number of 2324 million letters sent in one year.

On the suggestion of Germany twenty-two countries joined into a 'Universal Postal Union' in 1874.

At the second postal congress of 1878 countries representing 750 million inhabitants were members of the Union. All the civilized world is now embraced by it, and forms for postal purposes a single country. It costs far less now to send a letter from Tokio to Berlin, than it cost seventy years ago to send it from Paris to Marseilles. Correspondence between the different countries has increased a hundredfold.

Popular Education.—Before the French Revolution more than half of the population of Europe was illiterate. Frederick the Great introduced compulsory elementary education in Prussia (1763); but some time passed before his wise example was widely imitated. At the present day it would be difficult to find in Germany a young man or woman unable to read and write. In most other western countries illiterate persons are also rare.

Progress of Medical Skill and of Sanitation.—The prevention and the cure of disease have been marvelously perfected by scientific discoveries. Humanity has been made healthier, stronger, and happier wherever modern physicians have been able to extend the blessings of their work.

The first notable medical discovery of modern times was vaccination as a preventive measure against small-pox. Variolation, *i.e.* the artificial inoculation with human small-pox, was known in antiquity and is still (in 1908) practised in China. It was brought to Europe from Turkey in 1718. Variolation is dangerous, because the inoculated patient can infect others with small-pox. Sometimes he may himself become so ill as to die. In 1796 the English physician *Edward Jenner* found out that people could be inoculated

with virus from a cow having the cow-pox. The 'vaccine' (Latin *vacca* = cow) produced only a little pustule on the patient, and made him immune against small-pox. Since Jenner's time, vaccination has been rendered absolutely safe and sure. It has proved to be the grandest and most beneficial discovery of medicine. Small-pox epidemics used to sweep off tens of thousands per year in single European countries. In the German empire, which has compulsory vaccination, 15 people died of small-pox in 1898, out of a total population of 53,753,140.

The sanitation of cities has been taken up methodically since 1850. The recently constructed works for pure water supply and for sewage disposal in many cases exceed the famous old Roman aqueducts in size and in the difficulty of construction. By various preventive measures, especially by enforcing the strictest cleanliness of towns, the advanced states have rendered impossible those epidemics of plague and cholera, which used to depopulate Europe.

The Historical Importance of Medical Progress.—The influence on history of all this medical progress is profound, though it cannot be directly measured. It adds to the efficiency of men in all kinds of employments. It does away with those interruptions of public enterprise which used to be caused by epidemics. The nations are made wealthier and surer of their aims.

What is meant by sureness of aim is strikingly illustrated by the work on the Panama Canal. It was started by a French company, some time after the successful construction of the Suez Canal. But the French attempt ended in failure, chiefly on account of the deadly climate of the Isthmus of Panama. Fevers and dysentery killed the men by the

hundreds. When the United States government undertook to build the canal, it first sent a commission of experts to improve the sanitary conditions. The success of this commission stands at the beginning of the twentieth century as a triumphal monument to the victories of medical science. Fevers and dysentery have been almost banished from the canal zone. The engineers can proceed to join the oceans, with the certainty that no epidemic will delay or stop their plans.

CHAPTER XXXIV

RECENT HISTORY OF FRANCE, SPAIN, SWITZERLAND, BELGIUM, HOLLAND, THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES, AND EGYPT.

Introduction—The governments that had overthrown Napoleon believed that they had at the same time put an end to the liberal institutions of the revolutionary period. They agreed to support the divine right of kings, and to suppress all agitation for popular rights. But the ideas of the French revolution had already spread among the people, and no power on earth could obliterate them. As the people advanced in education and political intelligence, they finally forced the governments to grant constitutional rule. The period between 1815 and 1848 is accordingly filled with a struggle between the progressive people and the reactionary governments.

I. FRANCE

Bourbon Reaction and the July Revolution (1815-1830).—After Waterloo Louis XVIII. was again restored to the French throne. He ruled according to the wishes of the extreme aristocrats and clericalists.

Not only were republicans persecuted in France, but an army was sent across the Pyrenees to help the wicked king Ferdinand VII. in overthrowing the Spanish constitution, which he had already sworn to uphold. Perhaps the worst blunder of the royalists was the execution of Marshal Ney, the most popular of the Napoleonic generals. He had received the title 'the bravest of the brave' for his heroic conduct during the Russian campaign.

Louis XVIII. was succeeded in 1824 by his brother Charles X., who was guided by the clerical party. When a liberal majority was elected to the legislative chamber, the king tried to uphold his despotic system by declaring the elections to be illegal, and by suppressing all liberal newspapers. The Paris populace rose in revolt (July, 1830), and after three days' street fighting the king had to leave the country.

Reign of Louis Philippe I. (1830-1848).—The new king was usually called 'le roi bourgeois' or 'middle class king,' because he owed his throne to the support of the well-to-do middle class.

He belonged to the younger branch of the Bourbon family. Since the first revolution he had earned his living as a teacher in Switzerland, and had travelled in America and Europe. He had dropped the family pride, and was willing to rule as a constitutional monarch. The peasants and artisans hated Louis Philippe, because he favoured only the wealthier people. During the later years of his reign several attempts were made on his life. Fear of assassination led him to enact repressive laws, so that his rule grew steadily more unpopular.

In February, 1848, the Paris mob rose in arms and demanded a republic. The king fled to England under the assumed name of 'Mr. Smith.'

The French revolutions of 1830 and 1848 were the signals for liberal risings all over Europe.

The Second Republic (1848-1851).—Louis Napoleon, nephew of the great emperor, was chosen as president of the new republic. He was not a sincere republican, but aimed at a renewal of the 'Caesarism' of his uncle. From the start he employed every kind of political trickery to win personal adherents. Napoleonists were placed in all the prominent offices, and the army was won over by systematic corruption.

The Coup d'Etat of 1851, and the Establishment of the Second Empire.—By a carefully arranged plan the republican leaders were suddenly arrested at night. All resistance was put down by force, and Louis Napoleon was made President for ten years. A conspiracy of this kind, resulting in a change of government, is called a 'coup d'état' (stroke of state), a French term which has come into international usage.

A year later Napoleon asked the French people, through a popular vote, whether they wished him to assume the imperial title. Nearly eight million votes were cast in the affirmative. He accordingly had himself crowned as Napoleon III., Emperor of the French.¹

The third Napoleon was a man of considerable ability. He gave France eighteen years of internal peace.

Agriculture and industries flourished, many railways were built, and the outward splendour of the empire was maintained by costly public works. Paris was entirely

¹ The son of Napoleon I., to whom the title Napoleon II. would have fallen, died as a young man in Austria.

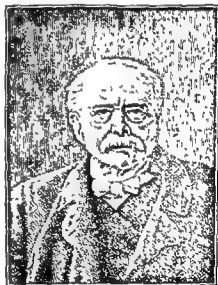
reconstructed at enormous cost, and was made into the most beautiful capital of the modern world.

Napoleon's successful expeditions to Russia and Italy, which will be described in their proper places, for a while raised France to the first place among the great powers. Paris became the political centre of Europe.

But in the second half of his reign Louis Napoleon committed a number of blunders in his foreign policy, and finally brought about the terrible disaster of the Franco-Prussian war.

In course of years his whole administration was pervaded with dishonest practices, and especially the army became rotten with corruption.

Causes of the Franco-Prussian War.—Napoleon III. was constantly outwitted in diplomacy by the Prussian minister *Bismarck*. After the war between Austria and Prussia (1866), which will be described in the following chapter, Napoleon realized that the German states under



BISMARCK

Prussian leadership were rising to be a power equal to France, if not superior to her. He demanded that Prussia should give up to France some territory along the Rhine, as a compensation for the Prussian gains in Germany. Bismarck knew that the French army at the time was not ready for war, and refused Napoleon's demand. Many Frenchmen

were very jealous of Prussia, and were ready to begin war on the first pretext.

In 1870 the Spanish throne was offered to a prince of Hohenzollern, and he accepted. As the Prussian king William was the head of the house of Hohenzollern, the French feared lest Spain might now be closely allied to Germany. The French government requested that the prince should withdraw, and the Prussian king complied with its wishes. But now the French ambassador in Germany was instructed to demand from the king of Prussia a declaration that no Hohenzollern prince should ever again come forward as a candidate for the Spanish throne.

No one expected that the Prussian government would submit to such a dictation of its future policy. The refusal naturally given by King William was considered by the hot-heads in France to be cause for war. The majority of the French people did not want war, and Napoleon himself was wavering. But Bismarck, who knew that a conflict was inevitable, wished to strike while the German army was at its highest efficiency. He published a description of the interview between King William and the French ambassador, in which it seemed as though the latter had been insulted. The French chambers at once voted for war. The minister for war stated that 'all was ready, even to the last button on the soldiers' gaiters.'

First Phase of the Franco-Prussian War.—When war was declared (1870), the Prussian general staff already had a complete plan of mobilization. Every detail of the advance to the Rhine had been worked out under the guidance of Field-Marshal *Moltke*, one of the greatest strategists of all times. Within a fortnight nearly four hundred thousand men were thrown across the frontier.

On the French side the whole campaign was mismanaged from the very start.

Corruption and embezzlement of state funds, which had grown into a common evil under Napoleon's administration, now bore terrible fruit. The army was 100,000 men short of the numbers set down on paper, and only 250,000 could take the field at once. The officers had no good maps of their own country, and the commissariat was so disorganized, that some regiments near the frontier almost starved for want of provisions.

The Germans marched from victory to victory. An army of 140,000 men, under Marshal *Bazaine*, was shut up in the fortress of Metz by superior German forces. By a series of admirably executed marches and fiercely contested battles, Moltke's generals surrounded the second imperial army at *Sedan* on September 1, 1870. The Emperor himself and 100,000 men had to surrender as prisoners of war on the following day.

The Third Republic, and the Second Phase of the Franco-Prussian War.—After the disaster of Sedan the Parisians dethroned Napoleon and proclaimed the Third Republic. When peace was discussed, the Germans demanded the cession of Alsace. But the French determined to fight on, rather than to give up a foot of soil.

Paris was invested and bombarded by a part of the German army. The fortifications of the capital were so strong, that only famine could force the city to surrender. For more than four months its two million inhabitants were shut off from all communication with the outer world, except what could be kept up by balloons and by carrier pigeons.

In the provinces the raising and equipping of new armies was carried on with the utmost enthusiasm and energy.

The guiding spirit of the national defence was *Leon Gambetta*. He escaped from Paris in a balloon, and assumed a military dictatorship over the provinces. Under his direction desperate efforts were made to break through the besieging army around Paris. He might have succeeded, had it not been for the treachery of Marshal Bazaine. This infamous man hoped to win power for himself by keeping his army inactive at Metz. When all his intrigues had failed, he capitulated, thus surrendering 170,000 men with all their officers and munitions of war. His surrender released a force of nearly 200,000 Germans for operations against the armies of Gambetta.

In January, 1871, Paris had to surrender. Three months later the war was definitely ended by the Treaty of Frankfort. France was forced to give up Alsace and a part of Lorraine, and to pay the enormous indemnity of five milliards of francs, or £200,000,000 sterling. The total cost of the war to France is estimated at £600,000,000 sterling.

France since 1871.—Since 1871 a renewal of war between France and Germany has been imminent several times. Even now a large section of the people is still animated by the desire to revenge the great defeat, and to get back Alsace-Lorraine. Internally France has been remarkably prosperous. All Europe was surprised to see how quickly France recovered from the financial losses of 1871. Royalists and Bonapartists have tried to get control of the government. But the republic has come through its trials with increased vigour, and seems destined for a long time to remain the French form of government.

The Present Government of France.—The existing French government rests on the republican constitution adopted by

the national assembly in 1875. The *President* is elected by the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, which unite for this purpose into the national assembly. His term of office is seven years. He can propose new laws, or, in other words, he has the 'initiative' in legislation. He must watch that the laws are properly carried out (briefly, he has the 'executive'). He disposes of the army, and appoints all civil officials and military officers.

The *Senate* and the *Chamber of Deputies* also have the initiative in legislation. A bill (proposed piece of legislation) can become law only after being approved by majorities in both of these Houses. Senators must be at least forty years old, and are chosen for nine years by special electoral colleges. The Chamber of Deputies has in fact far more power than the Senate. Deputies must be at least twenty-five years old, and are elected for four years by universal suffrage.

The President is aided by a *Cabinet* of eleven *Ministers*. They are appointed by him, but must be in agreement with the majority of the Chamber of Deputies. To this body they are also responsible for their actions. Through its control of the Ministers the Chamber of Deputies is practically sovereign over France.

II. SPAIN

Through Reaction and Revolution to Constitutionalism.—The inner history of Spain during the nineteenth century has been a constant struggle between absolutism and liberalism. When King Ferdinand, who had been driven out by Napoleon, returned in 1814, he found a liberal constitution, with an elected legislature called the *Cortes*. He overthrew the constitution, maltreated the patriotic leaders of the *Cortes*, and gave full sway to the clergy.

After six years of absolute rule a widespread insurrection forced Ferdinand to accept the constitution and summon

the Cortes. But in 1823 the French king, Louis XVIII., sent an army to Spain and restored the absolutism by force. The political struggles of the rest of the century are not important enough to be related here. For two years, 1873 and 1874, Spain was a republic.

Since then it has remained a constitutional monarchy, the throne being hereditary in the Bourbon dynasty. The legislative power is in the hands of the king and the Cortes. The latter consist of a Senate representing the aristocracy and the wealthy people, and a Congress of Deputies elected by the citizens at large.

The long-continued oppression on part of the kings and the Catholic Church have kept the Spanish people poorer and more ignorant than those of any other state west of Russia.

Loss of the Colonies.—At the beginning of the Napoleonic rule Spain still owned nearly all of Central and South America, except Brazil, which was Portuguese. The American colonies refused to acknowledge Joseph Bonaparte as their ruler, and after the restoration of Ferdinand they were willing to return to their allegiance only on condition of being granted various liberties. When the king would not assent, they declared their independence. The Spanish forces were insufficient to win back the rebellious colonies. France was anxious to help in the task, but the English Prime Minister, *Canning*, would not allow any other European state to interfere in American affairs. In 1824 he formally recognized the independence of Buenos Ayres, Colombia, and Mexico.

Cuba and Porto Rico in the West Indies, and the Philippine Islands remained under Spanish sovereignty until 1898. The Cubans were in a chronic

state of revolt, which the Spanish armies were unable to crush. As American business suffered from the constant disorder, the United States Government finally demanded that Spain should grant Cuba's independence. Spain's refusal led to war. Her poorly equipped fleets were annihilated in two battles at Manila (Philippines) and at Santiago de Cuba (1898). The Philippines and Porto Rico passed into the possession of the United States, while Cuba received its independence. Nothing is left now of the mighty world empire of Charles V. and Philip II., except the Canary Islands and a few insignificant possessions in Africa.

III. SWITZERLAND, BELGIUM, AND HOLLAND

Switzerland.—The Helvetian Republic, which had been established by Napoleon, and had been dependent on him, was declared to be an independent country after 1814. Switzerland then consisted of a loose confederation of little states, called Cantons. A religious and political dispute led to a civil war between the Cantons in 1848. The outcome of the war was the present Swiss constitution, in which the former 'Confederation' is changed to a '*Federal State*.' The latter is a more intimate union, in which the central government has greater power. It is a step nearer toward the formation of a united nation. But the Constitution still says that the twenty-two Cantons are 'sovereign, so far as their sovereignty is not limited by the federal Constitution.'

There are two houses of legislature, one representative of the Cantons, and one of the people at large. The executive power rests with a Federal Council of seven members, elected for three years by the two houses of the federal legislature. In certain respects the Swiss government is a

complete democracy. By the '*Referendum*,' for example, bills passed by the legislatures are referred to the citizens for their approval. Only if a majority of the Swiss citizens vote in favour of such measures, can they become law.

Belgium and Holland.—In 1814 the allies united the Southern Netherlands with Holland into a single state, hoping thus to raise a strong neighbour against France in the north-east. But the union was unpopular, because the Belgians were mostly Catholics and spoke French, while the Dutch-speaking Hollanders were Protestants. The Belgians rose at once when they heard of the Paris revolution in 1830, and won their independence. In 1831 the European Powers recognized Belgium as an independent state. Its government since then has been a constitutional monarchy.

The Netherlands and Switzerland have reaped much honour from being centres of international conferences. The Geneva Convention (Red Cross) and the Postal Union arose on Swiss soil. The *Peace Conferences at the Hague* have united in the Dutch capital representatives of all nations for the noble purpose of limiting military armaments. The first Peace Conference met in 1899 at the suggestion of the Russian Emperor, and the second one met in 1907. Unfortunately they showed that the day when military burdens will be diminished is still far off.

IV. THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES

Norway and Sweden.—After the treaty of Tilsit, Russia had taken Finland from Sweden. The European Powers agreed in 1814 that Sweden should be compensated for this loss by annexing Norway. The union between the two Scandinavian states, however, was only a 'personal union' through their joint sovereign. They formed a *Dual*

Monarchy under one king. Foreign relations were managed in common, while in all home affairs the two governments were separate. In 1905 the union was peaceably dissolved by an almost unanimous vote of the Norwegian citizens. Norway now is an independent kingdom, with a very democratic constitution.

Denmark.—Before the Napoleonic wars the Danish dominions had included Norway. The Danish king made the mistake of allying himself with Napoleon, whereupon the British Admiral Nelson destroyed the Danish fleet in the harbour of Copenhagen. Norway fell to Sweden, as told above. In 1864 Denmark lost its two southern provinces, Schleswig and Holstein, which had a German population, to Prussia. The Danish government is a constitutional monarchy, with a legislature of two houses.

V. EGYPT

The Rise of Mohammad Ali.—During the eighteenth century Egypt had become practically independent. In 1772 Ali Bey had openly defied Turkish authority, and the excessive power of the Mamluks had been used by Napoleon as a pretext for his Egyptian expedition. When the French evacuated the country in 1801, the English restored it to the Sultan. A state of chaos followed, in which three factions plotted and fought for their own advancement. These were the Mamluks, the Turks representing the Sultan, and the Albanians, who had been brought over during the war against Napoleon. Among the last-named was Mohammad Ali. He had come to Egypt with the rank of major, but having shown courage and ability he gained rapid promotion and became the leader of the Albanian troops. He then joined the Mamluks against the Turkish governor, but as soon as they had

successfully disposed of the latter, he turned against his allies and proceeded to hold Cairo in the name of the Sultan. Having won the confidence of the people, he was recognized as Pasha of Egypt by the Sublime Porte in 1806.

His Wars.—Mohammad Ali was ordered by the Sultan in 1811 to subdue the Wahhabis of Arabia. Before sending his troops out of Egypt he found it necessary to crush the Mamluks once and for all. He therefore invited all their Beys to a reception at the Citadel in honour of his son Tusun, who was to command the Wahhabi expedition. When all had arrived, the gates were shut, and the Albanians opened fire upon them. Of some 500 Beys only one escaped, while 4000 of their followers perished in the streets of Cairo. A series of campaigns against the Wahhabis followed, led first by Tusun, then by Mohammad Ali himself, and lastly by his famous son Ibrahim. In 1818 the rebels were completely vanquished by Ibrahim, and their leader, Abd Allah ibn So'ud, was executed in Constantinople.

The Pasha's next enterprise was the invasion of the Sudan, his objects being to obtain negro recruits for the Egyptian army and to enrich his treasury from the goldfields of the south. In 1822 his son Ismail was burnt at Shendi, but ample vengeance was taken for his death, and in the following year Khartum was founded.

In the war of Greek Independence the help of Mohammad Ali was again required by Sultan Mahmud. Ibrahim commanded the Egyptian forces, and using Crete as his base succeeded in conquering the Morea.

The destruction of his fleet, however, at Navarino (1827) secured the freedom of Greece. Mohammad Ali was rewarded for his services by the Pashalic of Crete.

The two last wars of the great Pasha were against the Sultan himself. Having been refused the Pashalic of Syria he determined to get it by force. At the end of 1831 Ibrahim began his most brilliant campaign. Capturing all the chief places in Syria, he gained a great victory over the Turks at Konia, and advancing almost to the Bosphorus he was only prevented from attacking Constantinople by the intervention of Russia (1833). As the result of his son's victories, Mohammad Ali was confirmed in his government of Egypt and Crete, to which were now added Jerusalem, Tripoli, Aleppo, Damascus, and Adana.

Mohammad Ali wished to make the possession of these provinces hereditary, in fact to found an independent Empire. He refused to pay tribute to the Porte, and then ignored the religious supremacy of the Sultan by removing Turkish guards from the Prophet's tomb and replacing them by his own Arab soldiers. This led to another war in 1839. The Turks attacked Ibrahim at Nezib and were again routed. But the Powers now stepped in to help the Sultan. The English fleet enabled the Turks to drive the Egyptians out of Syria, and then by threatening to bombard Alexandria forced the great Pasha to give in. By a firman of 1841 he was left with the hereditary Pashalic of Egypt only, for which he was to pay one quarter of its revenue to the Porte.

Home Government. — Mohammad Ali looked on

Egypt as the means by which to realize his imperial ambition. Internal administration was to him of secondary importance. The training of an efficient military and naval force was his first care, and to this he owed his success. At the beginning of his career he had seen the value of European discipline, and he therefore had the Egyptian army trained and drilled by French officers. His first navy was made up of bought ships, but after its wreck at Navarino, he had an arsenal constructed at Alexandria, and fitted out a new fleet. To meet the great expenses incurred by his wars he did his utmost to increase the resources of his country. Cotton was introduced into the Delta in 1822. The Mahmudiah Canal was begun in 1819, and the Barrage in 1847. By the grant of monopolies foreign enterprise was encouraged. The great Pasha appropriated almost all the land of the country, and the fellahs had to supply him with the greater part of its produce, keeping for themselves just enough to live on. Besides this they were subject to forced labour in his numerous factories, etc., and in one year in the construction of the Mahmudiah Canal alone, 20,000 perished from hunger and fatigue. The Egyptians had to pay the price of their ruler's aggrandizement, with the result that at the end of his reign their condition was worse than it had been under the Mamluks.

The Suez Canal.—The great Pasha died in 1849. During the next thirty years the condition of Egypt went from bad to worse owing to wretched financial administration. The most important event of this period was the making of the Suez Canal. The

French engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps, obtained the concession from Saïd Pasha, and the work was begun in 1859. It was completed ten years later in the reign of Ismail Pasha, whose lavish hospitality to celebrate its opening is said to have cost a million sterling. The venture seemed at first to be a colossal failure. In 1872 twenty pound shares fell to seven, and the Company nearly went bankrupt. Owing, however, to the invention of better engines for steamships and the enormous subsequent increase in mercantile steamers it soon afterwards became a great success. The Company had a ninety-nine years' lease, at the end of which the canal is to revert to the Egyptian Government. In time of war the canal is to remain open.

Ismail Pasha.—In 1863 Saïd Pasha was succeeded by Ismail Pasha, a son of the great Ibrahim. The new ruler received from the Sultan the title of "Khedive," and also a firman declaring that the inheritance was no longer to go to the eldest surviving male of the family of Mohammad Ali, but to the heirs of Ismail in direct succession. In return for this, the annual tribute to the Porte was raised to £600,000.

At first this remarkable man seemed anxious for the enlightenment of his country. Railways were made, schools founded, and trade encouraged. But his extravagance was almost incredible. In twelve years he spent 130 millions, for fifty of which no return can be shown. Loan after loan was raised, but the nominal value was never realized. Although the fellaheen were taxed to the utmost, only a small amount of what they paid reached the treasury owing to the corruption of many officials, who had to find

some compensation for their unpaid salaries. The Egyptian debt rose to about ninety millions and the treasury was empty. In the following year, when the Khedive suspended the payment of interest on the national debt, England and France interfered on behalf of the bondholders. To meet the demands of his creditors Ismail oppressed the peasants more heavily than ever, and a low Nile in 1877 added to their misery. A Commission of Inquiry was appointed to report on the state of affairs. The whole truth became clear. The Khedive then consented to govern constitutionally with a mixed cabinet, but in 1879 he increased his army, reduced the interest on the debt, and appointed a new cabinet of his own. The result was that, on the demand of England and France, he was deposed by the Sultan in favour of his son Tawfiq.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE UNIFICATION OF GERMANY AND OF ITALY

I. GERMANY

The Ascendency of Metternich.—Prince *Metternich* was for nearly forty years the soul of Austria's government. His policy was wholly reactionary, *i.e.* he opposed constitutional government, freedom of the press, and all liberal institutions connected with the Revolution. His cleverness in diplomacy gave to Austria the first voice in general European affairs. By his instigation absolutism was upheld not only in Austria, but also in Germany and Italy.

He helped to bring about the '*Holy Alliance*,' which was proposed by the Czar *Alexander*, an impractical visionary. All European rulers, except the English king, the Sultan of Turkey, and the Pope, eventually joined this alliance. It became one of Metternich's best instruments for beating down liberal principles from Russia to Spain.

The German Confederation of 1815.—After the overthrow of Napoleon a Congress of European statesmen met at the Austrian capital for the settlement of European affairs. The famous *Congress of Vienna* brought back the political map of Europe to nearly

the same boundaries which had existed before the French Revolution.

The German States were formed by the Congress into a loose confederation under the presidency of Austria. The affairs of the *German Confederation* were guided by a Diet consisting of representatives of the various governments, thirty-nine in number. The patriots hoped soon to see a united German fatherland grow out of the confederation. But the rivalry between Austria and Prussia, and the fear of the smaller states lest their sovereign rights might be impaired, delayed the completer union for more than half a century.

The Customs Union.—Common trade interests brought the German states together into a *Customs Union*. For commercial purposes this Union was like one country, within which goods could be moved without paying any duties. When Austria wished to join, Prussia refused. Prussia had a natural preponderance in the Customs Union, owing to her more numerous population and her extensive trade. The material welfare of the German states was much advanced by the unhampered exchange of goods, and the commercial unity so established formed a sound basis for the later political unity.

The Revolution of 1848.—By the system of Metternich all liberal aspirations were suppressed throughout Germany and Austria. But the hope of political freedom was still strong in the hearts of many thousands, and the hatred of absolutism grew steadily stronger. When news of the Paris revolution reached the German capitals, mobs at once rose in nearly all of them and demanded constitutional rule. Metternich barely saved his life by escaping from Vienna. The

Austrian Emperor for a while also fled from his capital. In Berlin there was a bloody encounter between the royal troops and the populace.

Constitutions were now granted everywhere. But both in Prussia and in Austria the old governments kept as much control as they possibly could. Although legislative chambers were elected by the people, the monarchy remained the real power in the state.

The War with Denmark, and the Seven Weeks' War.—The Danish War of 1864 was mainly due to the strong *national feeling* of the Germans. They no longer could bear to see their countrymen in *Schleswig-Holstein* under Danish rule. After a brief campaign Austria and Prussia jointly forced the Danish government to give up Schleswig-Holstein. Two years later it was incorporated with Prussia.

It was the final settlement of the Schleswig-Holstein question which brought about the long-expected conflict between Austria and Prussia.

Bismarck decided that the time was now ripe to settle the rivalry between the two states, and to make Prussia the unquestioned head of Germany. He felt sure of victory, because the Prussian army had been wonderfully perfected, and stood under the leadership of a military genius, Count von *Moltke*. Italy was allied with Prussia, while Austria had the South-German states on its side. The 'Seven Weeks' War' (1866) was a continuous triumph for Prussian military organization and strategy. The campaign was decided by the battle of *Sadowa* (also known as the battle of Königgrätz, a village in Bohemia).

Austria was excluded from Germany, and Prussia became the head of the '*North-German Union*.' The Southern states, of which Bavaria was the

largest, still remained outside the Union. They were mostly Catholic, while Prussia was Protestant.

King William I. and Bismarck.—The reconstruction of Germany will always be linked with the names of *King William I.* and his minister *Bismarck*. The king's greatness lay in his choice of able counsellors, whom he trusted and supported faithfully. He aimed to make Prussia strong through its army, and to use the army as an instrument for uniting Germany under Prussian leadership. His minister Bismarck brought this plan to a successful end.

As a supporter of monarchy by divine right Bismarck was at first hated by the liberals. He was more sagacious and energetic than all his opponents. He knew that the people cannot learn at once how to make good use of political rights, but that the change from absolutist to popular government must be very slow. In support of the army reorganization Bismarck once said: "It is not by speeches and resolutions of majorities that the great questions of the time are to be decided . . . but by blood and iron." He well deserved his later name, the 'Iron Chancellor.'

Foundation of the New German Empire (1871).—The intense patriotism for the common German fatherland, which was aroused by the victories in France, enabled Bismarck to complete the union of the states. At Versailles, during the siege of Paris, the states joined into the Confederation known as the German empire. King William was hailed as President with the title German Emperor.

Effects of the Union.—Under the new political order Germany has astonished the world by her rapid progress. The German steel and textile industries now rival those of Britain. German steamers are seen in

all parts of the globe more frequently than those of any other flag except the British. The German army is admired and feared. The universities of Berlin, Jena, Heidelberg, and other cities, are recognized as the best and highest centres of learning, and attract students from all countries.

The Government of the German Empire.—The twenty-five states constituting the confederation have their independent laws and governments, which must not, however, conflict with the laws of the Empire. Since 1871 there has been a steady tendency towards unification of all affairs concerning the common interests of the Empire.

The executive power lies with the *Federal Council* (Bundesrat) and the Emperor. The Bundesrat consists of representatives of the various state governments. The imperial office is hereditary in the house of Hohenzollern, i.e. the king of Prussia is also German Emperor.

Legislation is conducted by the Bundesrat, acting as a sort of Upper House, and the *Imperial Diet* (Reichstag), which consists of representatives elected by the German people.

Foreign affairs, the consular service, military and naval organization, are entirely under imperial control.

Austria-Hungary since 1866.—In the troublous times of 1848 the Hungarians tried to gain complete independence and a free government for themselves. Among the ardent patriots who then risked their lives for national liberty, *Louis Kossuth* will always remain famous. The Hungarian uprising was beaten down with the help of a Russian army. The Czar gladly helped the Austrian government, because he did not want the example of a successful rebellion so near his own borders.

In 1867 the Emperor *Francis Joseph* of Austria granted a new constitution to his Hungarian subjects. They got their own parliament, their own laws, and even their own king. *Francis Joseph* was crowned King of Hungary at the old capital city of Budapest.

Since then Austria-Hungary has been a *Dual Monarchy*, united chiefly through the person of the ruler, who is both Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary. Both countries have made much progress in education, industry, and the general welfare of the people. But the two governments have been much troubled by the conflicting interests of the various nationalities embraced under their rule. Germans, Poles, Czechs, Italians, and Magyars all want to see their own languages and national aspirations treated with special respect. Violent quarrels in the Austrian Parliament are therefore of common occurrence.

II. ITALY

Early Attempts of Union (1815-1850).—In Italy, as in Germany, thousands of patriots longed for national union and constitutional government. But the king of Naples, the Pope, and the Austrians, who held Lombardy and Venetia, suppressed every movement that threatened the continuance of their rule.

A secret society called the *Carbonari* (charcoal burners) spread all over Italy, and counted patriots of all stations and both sexes among its ranks. Their repeated revolts were crushed with the aid of Austrian troops. Government spies pervaded the country, and all suspected persons were arbitrarily imprisoned or executed. The teaching of history and of political or natural science was forbidden. At Rome even vaccination was prohibited, because it reminded of the liberal French rule.

From 1830 to 1848 the able patriot *Mazzini*, founder of the party called *Young Italy*, tried in vain to bring about the establishment of an Italian republic. In 1849 he drove the Pope from Rome, and set up a republic. *Garibaldi*, the popular hero of the Italian struggle for liberty, bravely defended the new Roman commonwealth against superior French forces, until he was beaten and barely saved his life.

Foundation of the Kingdom of Italy (1859-1864).—After 1850 there was only one constitutional state in Italy, namely the kingdom of *Sardinia*. It included Piedmont, in the western Po valley, where the capital Turin was also situated. *Victor Emmanuel*, the king of Sardinia, appointed as his chief minister the great statesman *Cavour*. In his courage and foresight Cavour resembled Bismarck. He won the friendship of England and France by sending an army to help them in the Crimean War against Russia. Napoleon III., who since his youth had an affection for Italy, in turn helped Cavour against Austria.

In 1859 Austria declared war against Sardinia. The allied Sardinian and French troops defeated the Austrians in three great battles, of which the last, at *Solferino* in Lombardy, was decisive. Lombardy was annexed to Piedmont. The states of Central Italy revolted from their absolutist rulers and joined themselves to the realm of Victor Emmanuel.

In 1860 the adventurous hero *Garibaldi* suddenly landed in Sicily with a band of a thousand volunteers, and raised a rebellion against the king of Naples, of whose dominions Sicily formed a part. With the island won over to the party of liberty, Garibaldi crossed over to the mainland, and forced the last Bourbon king of Naples to abdicate.

The South now joined hands with the North. In 1861 Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed king of Italy, and so the patriots' dream of fifty years was at last realized.

Only Rome and Venetia were still wanting to complete the newly-born Italian nation. The former was held for

the Pope by a French garrison, because the Emperor Napoleon wished to keep the affection of his Catholic subjects by helping their 'Holy Father.' Venetia remained an Austrian province.

Completion of Italy; End of the Temporal Power of the Popes.—As reward for her alliance with Prussia in the Seven Weeks' War of 1866, Italy got Venetia. The Italians were beaten by the Austrians both on land and at sea. But they simplified Prussia's task by forcing Austria to employ an army in the South.

It was again through Prussian victories that *Rome* was made into the *capital* of the completed Italian kingdom. In 1870 Napoleon withdrew his garrison from Rome, and the *Papal rule* of over a thousand years was ended. Pius IX., who was then Pope, refused to agree to the loss of his temporal sovereignty. He pretended up to his death to be a prisoner in his stately residence, the Vatican, and his successors thus far have acted upon the same theory.

Italy since 1870.—As in Germany, so also in Italy the national union proved beneficial in every respect. The population increased rapidly. Roads and railways were built, agriculture was improved, and new industries were started.

For many years the relations with France were strained, because the latter occupied *Tunis*, in Africa, which Italy wished to keep under her own influence. In 1883 the Italian government entered into a *Triple Alliance* with Austria and Germany. This league counterbalanced the Dual Alliance between France and Russia. Both agreements are still in force (1908). By the obligations of the Triple Alliance Italy was forced to keep a very expensive army and navy. The military expenditures caused much dissatisfaction and even rioting among the people.

The government of Italy rests on the constitution of the former kingdom of Sardinia, issued in 1848. It is a limited monarchy with two chambers, of which the lower one is elected by the people.

CHAPTER XXXVI

RUSSIA AND THE BALKANS IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Alexander I and Nicholas I—The Emperor Alexander I. of Russia was a dreamy man with little will power, who was easily influenced by his surroundings. After 1815 he began to introduce liberal reforms, and even promised a constitution. When the Greeks tried to win their liberty from the Sultan he encouraged them. Then Metternich pointed out to him that the revolutions in various parts of Europe endangered law and order everywhere, and so won him back to the cause of absolutism. The disappointment of the Russian liberals led to a secret plan of murdering the Czar and proclaiming a republic. Just then Alexander died (1825), and was succeeded by his brother Nicholas (1825-1855). He beat down a rebellion in St. Petersburg, and continued throughout his reign to uphold autocracy with relentless energy.

The Greek Struggle for Liberty.—In spite of the attempts of Selim III. and Mahmud II. to introduce western reforms, the Ottoman Empire continued in a disorganized state. Another war with Russia led to the Treaty of Bucharest (1812), by which the Czar extended his territory to the Pruth, and Servia, thanks to her hero Kara George, won the right to administer her internal affairs. The example of the French

Revolution revived, in the Greeks their old love of liberty. Secret patriotic societies were formed, and in 1820 an open rebellion broke out. For the next ten years Greece was devastated by the most-cruel war, in which the patriots displayed fine heroism. Russia, England and France finally intervened. The Turkish fleet was destroyed by the allies in the battle of *Navarino* (1827). In 1830 the Sultan was forced to acknowledge the sovereign kingdom of Greece.

War between Russia and Turkey (1828-1829).—After Navarino the war between Russia and Turkey was continued. This was unfortunate for Turkey, for she was badly in need of peace. The great opponents to military reform had been the Janissaries. Mahmud II. saw in the Greek war what Mohammad Ali had achieved by modern methods in the Egyptian army, and he decided to get rid of the conservative Janissaries as the great Pasha had got rid of the Mamluks. He therefore exterminated these famous troops in 1826, and began to build up the Turkish army anew. But the Czar Nicholas gave him no time to complete his task. The Russians won an easy victory. They might have marched on Constantinople, but did not wish to provoke the jealousy of the other powers. By the treaty of Adrianople Turkey ceded a strip of the eastern coast of the Black Sea. Various rights and privileges were also granted to Russia, which greatly strengthened her influence in the Black Sea regions.

The Eastern Question.—The problem, What is to become of Turkey? constitutes the difficult 'Eastern Question.' Russia and Great Britain are not the only states concerned

with the question. Austria-Hungary, being the close neighbour of Turkey, cannot be indifferent to measures which may affect her own welfare. France must aim to preserve for herself the largest possible amount of naval power in the Mediterranean. For Italian commerce and sea power the future of the Turkish Adriatic coast is of vital concern. Lastly, the German Empire has developed an extensive trade in the Turkish dominions, and has hopes of becoming the controlling power in Asia Minor and Mesopotamia. Germany has found it expedient to help Turkey in the reorganization of her army, which is trained by German officers.

The Eastern Question is a constant menace to European peace. The Greek Revolution and the Russo-Turkish War of 1828-1829 were only earlier phases of the question. We shall now tell of two further stages, the Crimean War and the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-1878.

The Crimean War (1853-1856).—Greek Catholic and Roman Catholic religious associations quarrelled about the possession of some holy places in Jerusalem. Napoleon III., who courted the Catholic party in France, supported the Roman Catholic claims, and the Czar Nicholas, as head of the Greek Church in Russia, helped the Greek Catholics. Nicholas finally demanded that the Sultan should recognize him as the protector of all Greek Christians under Turkish rule. Counting on help from Western Europe, the Sultan refused. The Russians at once opened hostilities by destroying a Turkish squadron in the Black Sea.

France and England took the side of the Sultan. Cavour sent a Sardinian army for the wisely-calculated purpose of winning French and English sympathy for Italian union. As for Napoleon, he hoped chiefly to get glory for his dynasty.

The allied armies besieged the fortress of *Sebastopol* in the Crimea for eleven months. The winter campaign was terrible, and caused both sides enormous losses through privation and disease. When Sebastopol was finally taken and Russia was nearly exhausted by the costly war, the Treaty of Paris was agreed upon (1856).

By this treaty both Russia and all other nations were forbidden to keep any warships on the Black Sea. No military arsenal was to be maintained on the Black Sea coasts. Russia's boundary was moved back from the Danube. The Powers engaged to respect the independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire.

Their aim was to preserve Turkey as a bulwark against Russia. But during the succeeding years the Turkish government, by its own incapacity, made further interference in its affairs inevitable. The Powers could not look on idly, while thousands of inoffensive Christians were massacred by their Mohammedan fellow subjects.

The Roumanians north of the Danube were able to form the independent principality of *Roumania* in consequence of the war.

In 1871, after the defeat of France, England could not stop Russia from reasserting her right to have fortresses and warships on the Black Sea.

The Russo-Turkish War (1877-1878).—The complaints of the Christians in Turkey excited the anger of the Russian people. England, fearing the advance of Russia towards the South, blocked the efforts of the continental powers to force reforms upon Turkey. Among the Turks themselves racial and religious fanaticism was stirred up by the prospect of foreign

interference. The racial hatred culminated in fearful massacres in Bulgaria.

. As the Porte obstinately repelled all suggestions of reform, England could no longer prevent the Russian declaration of war. The Turkish armies fought splendidly, but were at last captured or dispersed. (Siege and capture of Plevna; storming of the Shipka Pass.) The Russians advanced within a few miles of Constantinople. If the capital had been occupied the British fleet lying in the Bosphorus at once would have opened fire. For some time war between Russia and Great Britain was hourly imminent.

The Congress of Berlin (1878).—A Congress of ministers at Berlin finally settled on a treaty satisfactory to both England and Russia. Turkey was deprived of a considerable part of her European territory. The provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under Austrian administration. Montenegro, Servia, Bulgaria, and Roumania were recognized as independent states. Greece got the provinces of Thessaly and Epyrus, thus doubling the area of the kingdom. Russia came out of the war both with honour and profit. Her borders were again advanced to the mouth of the Danube, and south of the Caucasus she kept the strong fortress of Kars and the valuable seaport of *Batoum*. England promised to help the Porte if Russia should try to conquer more territory in Asia Minor. In return the Sultan ceded the Island of *Cyprus* to England.